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ABSTRACT

This packet is presented for use as a trainer's manual in offering technical assistance and teacher training to refugee English as a second language (ESL) programs. It is the result of a working session of experienced professionals that was convened by the Language and Orientation Resource Center (LORC), and it presumes some previous knowledge of the content as well as experience on the part of those who will use it. The manual consists of six sections: an introduction, definitions of technical assistance which the trainer may be asked to provide, a description of the keys to effective training, topics of concern to the trainer and to the ESL client, the planning and presentation of workshops, and a discussion of resources. It is noted that the third section is the core of the manual because this section provides the trainer with the basis on which to develop any training session regardless of topic. In addition, this section presents the content that should be taught to other trainers. (Author/AMH)

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MANUAL FOR ESL

TEACHER TRAINING AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT

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I. Introduction

A. Scope and Purpose of the Training Packet

This training packet, developed at the Language and Orientation Resource Center (LORC) of the Center for Applied Linguistics upon request by the Office of Refugee Resettlement, is to be used as a trainers' manual in offering technical assistance and teacher training to refugee English as a Second Language (ESL) programs. It was developed to enable trainers and potential trainers to begin providing, at the state and local levels, the same type of technical assistance and staff development support services to refugee ESL programs that LORC (which operated under a national demonstration grant) had been providing in the past.

To develop this training packet, LORC convened a working session, April 21-23, 1982 in Washington, D.C., composed of experienced professionals in the field of refugee ESL and teacher training/staff development, as well as representatives from the Office of Refugee Resettlement. A concurrent working session to develop a training packet for Cultural Orientation (CO) was also held, and attended by a similar group of professionals in that field.

The result of the ESL working session, which follows, focuses on <u>how</u> to conduct training and <u>what</u> areas of concern trainers may be asked to address. In addition, resources are indicated and discussed. This training packet is in no way a definitive method or approach to ESL training and/or technical assistance, but a synthesis of the experience, knowledge, and priorities of the following people who worked to develop it.

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B. Target Audience Qualifications

As mentioned in Part A above this packet is intended for use by trainers and potential trainers in order to provide staff development and other assistance to refugee ESL programs. For purposes of developing this packet, the participants identified the trainer as someone with the following characteristics:

- ESL teaching experience

  i.e., a minimum of 2-3 years teaching ESL in any situation (including abroad, in a university, in a refugee program, with adult education experience preferred)

- ESL background

  i.e., formal ESL training at the college or university level. This may include a B.A., M.A., or M.A.T. in ESL. It also may include a certificate training course, or such training as is provided by Peace Corps.

- Cross-cultural experience or training

  i.e., experience living and/or traveling abroad or a program or course of study in cross-cultural communication, sociology, and/or cultural anthropology.

- Adult education teaching experience

  i.e., experience teaching adults in adult basic education, continuing education, and/or community college programs, with adult ESL experience preferred.

- Training experience

  i.e., experience in training colleagues and/or peers. This may include presenting local workshops and demonstrations, or observing and evaluating other teachers.

- Experience with refugees

  i.e., experience in working with refugees whether as a teacher, tutor, sponsor, service provider, or community volunteer.

Although someone with only a few of the above characteristics may be able to benefit from this training manual, a trainer or potential trainer should possess all of the above mentioned characteristics in order to fully understand and benefit from the examples and information that follow. It is important to stress this point. In trying to make the manual as clear and usable as possible, the information is brief and the examples simplified; thus, it is necessary for the trainer to rely heavily on his/her knowledge of the content areas and related experience.

C. Field Study and Recommendations

In June, 1982, a field study of this manual was conducted at one-day workshops at various sites around the country: Region I (Boston), Region II (New York City), Region IV (Atlanta), Region V (Chicago) and Region VII (Kansas City). Although a true field-test of this manual was an ideal goal, this was not possible. In addition to the fact that the actual presentation of the workshop varied depending on the participants and the individual facilitators, workshop participants did not have the chance to use the manual to plan and conduct actual training sessions of their own. Therefore, the trial sessions held are being referred to as field studies. At this point it is important to stress that it is only the workshop leaders of these trial sessions who can give true and complete evaluations of the manual: they are the only ones who have actually used the manual to plan and execute training workshops. Workshop participants were trained in how to use the manual, but as of this writing have yet to use it to conduct training. Thus, the true effectiveness of this manual has yet to be tested. Keeping this in mind, a synthesis of the comments and recommendations of both the field study leaders and participants follows.

In general, the reaction to the manual and its usefulness was quite positive. All agreed that there is no other manual aimed specifically at the ESL trainer. Even experienced trainers, who normally employ a training process and activities similar to those described in this manual, voiced their contentment of the fact that the process is now in print for all to read and reflect upon.

One point of contention uncovered in the field study was whether an inductive or deductive approach to the process of training be used. Section III of the manual employs an inductive approach: that is, examples of workshops which employ a specific process of training (and learning) are presented before the process of training itself is described in a sample workshop. Some field study participants (as well as some field study leaders) reported that they (would) feel more comfortable with a deductive approach: that is, they would like the process explained and demonstrated before other examples and applications are given. Therefore, users of this manual may wish to read (and employ) example 2.c in Section III.A. (page 21) before any of the other examples in that section.

The field study also underscored some areas in which the manual is lacking. Some participants would have liked to have had more information on group dynamics and interpersonal relations included in the manual. This kind of knowledge and information would help a trainer deal with the resistance and hostilities which are sometimes encountered when providing training and technical assistance. Another area perhaps overlooked by the developers of the manual was pointed out in a suggestion by one participant who felt that there is an additional stage in the training process (as described in III.A. "Levels of Learning"). This stage consists of awareness building and may be labeled the "Pre-knowledge" stage. More specifically, the effective trainer must make learners aware of their need for certain knowledge before this knowledge can be presented and effectively learned for skills development. Therefore, users of this manual may want to include this "pre-knowledge" stage when designing training sessions.

Another useful suggestion came from a participant who, in addition to the information in Section VI of this manual, wanted other participants to indicate their specific areas of expertise on a special sign-up sheet to later be distributed to all participants. This is a useful technique that a trainer may use for building local resource networks.

All of the field study participants (and leaders) felt that the usefulness of the manual would be greatly minimized if there were no concommitant training session on how to use the manual. However, this point could not be truly determined since there was no control group that received the manual alone (without the training session). However, the length of the training session required for effective use of the manual was an area of great discussion.

All the field study training sessions were conducted in day-long (approximately 6 hours) workshops. Most of the participants felt that this was too long and intense. Some would have liked the training to be conducted in two 3-4 hour sessions (ideally on non-consecutive days so that what was learned could be internalized). Others, more experienced, would have liked only one 3-4 hour session. Still others would have like one 1/2 day session devoted to the content areas of training and another separate 1/2 day session devoted to the training process. Of course, the ideal length and organization of such a training session would greatly depend on the level and experience of the participants.

The field study leaders would like to thank all the participants in Regions I, II, IV, V and VII for their insights, comments, recommendations, and cooperation. It is hoped that the recommendation and suggestions given here will aid trainers in using this manual more effectively in the future.

D. Organization of the Packet

This training packet has been organized to give as much information as possible (including examples and resources) in a manageable number of pages. It consists of six sections: an introduction, definitions of technical assistance, a description of the keys to effective training, topics of concern to the trainer, the planning and presentations of workshops, and a discussion of resources. It also has two appendices: samples and hand-outs, and a bibliography.

Section II discusses the types of technical assistance the trainer may be asked to provide, while Section III provides a description of the process of training (with examples) based on a model of adult learning. Trainers will find this section an essential key to effectiveness. Section IV focuses on the topics of concern to the ESL clients; i.e., it outlines the content areas in which the trainer may be asked to provide assistance. Section V presents the steps involved in giving workshop and presentations, from planning to follow-up. And section VI provides the trainer with some basic resources, and information on how to access them. There also are two appendices: Appendix A consists of samples of materials referred to in the manual which are not readily available from other sources, while Appendix B is a bibliography of materials referred to in the packet which can be obtained directly from the source.

Of the six sections, the trainer will find Section III to be the core of the manual. It is this section that provides the trainer with the basis on which to develop any training session, regardless of topic. In addition, Section III is the content that should be taught and focused upon when training other (potential) trainers. The other sections, while containing some valuable and pertinent information, do not require extensive demonstration, explanation, or discussion; they may simply be read.

II. Definitions of Technical Assistance

Technical assistance (TA) generally consists of providing information, resources, recommendations, and materials for ESL programs and the individuals (both teachers and administrators) involved in these programs. Technical assistance may be provided through on-site demonstration or explanation at conferences or workshops, and/or during program visitations and telephone consultations. This manual focuses on the workshop as the major mode of technical assistance.

This section describes four major types of technical assistance (i.e., needs assessment, program design, staff development, and program analysis) that the trainer may be asked to provide, with an overview of each.

A. Needs Assessment

One type of technical assistance often requested is needs assessment. Needs assessment is an on-going process, and may be conducted prior to organizing an ESL program, as well as during its implementation. It consists of identifying the target ESL community by describing its size, number of languages represented, and various demographic characteristics in order to determine what type and size of program, if any, is needed. When conducted on an ongoing basis, it is used to ascertain the effectiveness of instructional and support services currently being provided. Needs assessment may be conducted through questionnaires, as well as structured interviews with social service agencies, students, teachers, business people, government agencies (e.g., ORR), and/or any other community groups likely to be impacted by the limited English-speaking population. It is important to remember, however, that any needs assessment should also address input from the target community. Thus, interviews of the target community should be conducted in the native language, and questionnaires should be bilingual (or multi-lingual, as the case may be). For samples of both student and community needs assessment surveys, see Appendix A: #1 and #2.

For further information on needs assessment in ESL, see Buckingham, Needs Assessment in ESL, in Appendix B.

B. Program Design

A second focus of technical assistance may be assisting programs in developing and/or modifying an instructional plan which specifically addresses the needs and goals of the target population. Two different examples of program designs are included in Appendix A: #3 and #4.

For further discussion of program design, see Section IV.A.3 (page 26) of this manual.

C. Staff Development/Teacher Training

Technical assistance in the area of staff development/teacher training is the primary function of the trainer, and is the type of assistance most often requested by ESL coordinators and administrators. For that reason, a major part of this training manual is aimed at assisting the trainer in providing technical assistance for this purpose.

Staff development/teacher training is usually conducted at on-site workshops, or at statewide and/or regional conferences. However, it may also be provided through individualized consultations.

The trainer may be asked to conduct workshops and respond to questions on such topics as testing, teaching pronunciation, ESL methodology, curriculum design, materials, vocational ESL, and ESL/Literacy, among others. Therefore, to be of maximum effectiveness, the trainer must have a wealth of information and resources at his/her fingertips. A good starting point is to access the LORC Refugee Education Guides available through ERIC, listed in Appendix B. Most of those guides contain a selected bibliography for further reading.

D. Program Analysis

A fourth type of technical assistance is program analysis, which can be done at the local, state, and/or regional level. A program analysis is for the purpose of determining the overall effectiveness of a program, usually for the benefit of the program (<u>not</u> the funding source), in order to find out where improvement (if any) is needed; it is <u>not</u> a student or teacher evaluation.

Similar in content to an internal evaluation, a program analysis consists of gathering information through questionnaires, structured interviews, and/or observations. For further discussion on the types of information needed, see Sections III.A.2.b (page 19) and IV.A.8 (page 31) of this manual.

III. Keys to Effective Training

A. Levels of Learning

The most important concept to keep in mind when training adults, whether these adults are students, classroom instructors, or staff developers, is that effective learning, like effective teaching, moves through levels or stages. Therefore, for maximum effectiveness, all instruction should aspire to lead the adult learner through those stages. Adult learning consists, minimally, of the following four stages (levels):

1. knowledge
2. comprehension
3. application
4. synthesis

Stage 1, the knowledge level, consists of clearly imparting to the learners the content to be mastered. This may be accomplished through lecture, through a process of identification or definition, and/or, probably most effectively, through demonstration/example.

Stage 2, the comprehension level, is a restatement in the learner's own words of the knowledge gained during Stage 1. Thus, during this stage trainers may guide the learners to re-state what was presented in Stage 1 and/or to give other relevant examples.

Stage 3, the application phase, is the demonstration of the learners' ability to use what was learned during the previous stages in a controlled situation. This is usually done, for example, by asking the learners to take part in a hands-on activity, and actually demonstrate their knowledge by performing a specific task.

Stage 4, the synthesis phase, consists of drawing together all of the components of what has been learned and applying this knowledge in a new and different setting. This can be done by discussion and/or problem-solving.

The levels of learning outlined above form only one possible model of the stages required for learning. An example of a very well-known model, Bloom's taxonomy of learning, is included in Appendix A: #5. Since adherence to the levels of adult learning is an essential key to being an effective trainer, the rest of this section is devoted to examples of the stages described above applied to content areas that the trainer will most likely encounter in his/her training endeavors. The first two examples (1.a, 1.b) are appropriate for use in ESL teacher training. The last three examples (2a, 2b, 2c) are for use in staff development training, i.e., in the training of potential trainers.

1. Examples for Use in ESL Teacher Training

The two examples included here are intended as sample workshop/presentation outlines (with relevant activities) in content areas that may be requested by ESL teachers: (a) textbook selection and evaluation and (b) teaching ESL to competencies. Please note that each of the following workshop/presentation outlines is based on the levels of adult learning discussed above. For the steps listed at each level, relevant training activities are described.

a. Textbook Selection and Evaluation

In conducting teacher training, a commonly-requested topic is teaching materials, especially textbooks. Both teachers and teachers-in-training want to know what books are available, and which ones are best for their class. Rather than lecturing on text materials, the trainer may wish to instruct teachers on selecting and evaluating their own texts.

Stage 1 (Knowledge)

Textbook selection and evaluation consists of the following steps:

(1) Identifying the needs of the students

- Elicit from the participants their students' goals and language needs and record them on the blackboard, newsprint, or whatever else is available.

(2) Identifying potential texts

- Elicit known titles from the participants (adding other titles unknown to them) and list them on the blackboard.

(3) Determining procedures or guidelines for reviewing texts and drafting a text review form

- Elicit suggestions from participants as to the essential elements in the review of a text. For example, approach (structural, situational, notional/functional, competency-based) level (beginning, intermediate, advanced), number of exercises and activities, clear instructions and lay-out, and cost. List the elements that the group comes up with on the blackboard.

  Prioritize these elements and draft a text review form (or checklist). For more information on text selection, see:

  - Section IV.A.6 (page 30) of this manual.

  - Samples in Appendix A: #6 and #7.

  - Article on text evaluation in Celce-Murcia and MacIntosh, eds. Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language (Appendix B).

(4) Reviewing the texts

- Choose one of the text titles elicited from the participants previously, and have the participants review it according to the text review form (or checklist).

(5) Selecting the text

- Have participants or groups of participants give reasons as to why they would or would not select this text.

Stage 2 (Comprehension)

(1) Elicit from the participants the number of steps involved in selecting and evaluating a text.

(2) Ask participants to order these steps.

Stage 3 (Application)

The application phase may consist of a case study. Thus, the trainer should supply the participants with:

- the characteristics (i.e., goals and language needs) of a hypothetical group of students.

- three potential texts

- a text review form

The trainer should then ask the participants, either individually or in groups, to review the texts and select one, giving appropriate reasons.

Stage 4 (Synthesis)

Have the participants, either individually or in groups:

- list characteristics (goals and language needs) of their own students.

- identify potential texts for these students.

- establish procedures and draft their own review form.

- review each of the books identified by completing the form.

- select an appropriate text.

Note: In all training sessions, the trainer should circulate among the groups of participants during "hands-on" activities in order to ensure that the task is understood and to refocus groups, if necessary. In addition, the trainer should establish an exact time frame for the task and alert participants when the time period is nearly over.

b. Teaching ESL to Competencies

The most common practice among ESL teachers has been to base and sequence their lessons on grammatical objectives. However, this does not meet the needs of the refugee adult who must function in an English-speaking environment almost immediately. As a result, competency-based (task-oriented) ESL teaching is becoming more widespread in adult ESL classes.

Stage 1 (Knowledge)

(1) Request participants to read LORC Refugee Education Guide, Adult Education Series #12, "Teaching ESL to Competencies" (Appendix B) prior to the workshop, or at least have the guide available at the workshop.

- Elicit main points as outlined in the Guide.

(2) Identify a language situation appropriate to the needs of a specific group of students. For example, students with basic survival needs must be able to deal with health, which may include going to a pharmacy or getting a prescription filled.

- Elicit some language situations from the participants.

(3) Prior to workshop, trainer should tape a sample of natural language appropriate to needs of student. For example, one can tape an exchange with a pharamacist when getting a prescription filled.

OR

Trainer may ask the participants to role-play getting a prescription filled.

(4) Trainer identifies the competency and records some of the functional language from the activity in #3, above, on the blackboard or newsprint, according to the chart in Adult Education Guide #12 (pp. 13-17).

Stage 2 (Comprehension)

Trainer asks the participants to provide the remaining functional language from the above situation by:

(1) providing participants with hand-outs of an "empty" chart (from Guide #12) and having them complete it either individually or in pairs.

OR

(2) asking participants to orally provide the remaining functional language to be taught, while recording it on the blackboard or newsprint.

Stage 3 (Application)

The trainer may now provide another survival situation (for example, making an appointment), in the form of a tape or dialogue, and divide the participants into groups. Each group is given an empty competency chart (from Guide #12), and then each group:

(1) chooses a person to act as the recorder.

(2) identifies the competencies and related functional language relevant to the situation.

(3) reports back to the larger group (for comparison and feedback).

Stage 4 (Synthesis)

Now have the participants, in different groups, provide the situation and:

- role play the situation.
- identify the competencies and related functional language.
- report back to the large group for feedback and discussion.

2. Examples for Use in Staff Development Training

The three following sample workshop/presentation outlines are intended for use with training other potential trainers. Please note that each of the following examples is based on the previously described levels of adult learning, and that the last example (2c) presents the levels (stages) of learning as the topic (content) to be taught and learned. Again, relevant training activities are described at each stage.

a. Needs Assessment

As mentioned in Section II, local needs assessment is a type of technical assistance that trainers are often asked to provide. A needs assessment may address community needs in terms of an ESL program, staff development needs, or curriculum needs, among others. The example given here is for the purpose of assessing staff development needs.

Stage 1 (Knowledge)

The following questions should be addressed by the trainer with as much input from the participants as possible.

(1) What is needs assessment?

- Needs assessment usually consists of a survey instrument which reflects the needs of the staff in order to make a program more effective. For effective staff development to occur, a climate of openness, acceptance and trust must be established. Staff/teachers must be actively involved in the process, recognize learning needs, identify tasks that they must perform, and assess their own competence. The most desirable instrument is one that is clear, concise, and reflects areas of staff growth rather than admission of deficiencies. The tone should reflect what would make the staff more effective rather than what skills they are lacking.

(2) Why conduct a needs assessment?

- To be successful, any staff development activity (e.g., teacher training workshop) should be geared to the staff's interests and needs.

(3) When should you do needs assessment?

- An early step in staff development should be any assessment of staff needs in relation to those of the students. Ideally, a survey instrument is distributed well ahead of time (for example, two or three months in advance), so a coordinated schedule of training activities can be planned. However, if this is not possible, a survey can be conducted a week or two in advance of a workshop/presentation, or, informally, as the initial step of a workshop/presentation.

(4) How do you do needs assessment?

- As mentioned earlier, needs assessment is often conducted through the use of a survey instrument. (See Appendix A: #8 for sample instrument.) Elicit other methods from the participants.

Response should include suggestions such as:

- program/classroom observation
- interviews with administrators, counselors, teachers, and students, which can be conducted informally via telephone, if necessary.
- reviewing evaluation forms (completed by administrators, peers, or students)

- The results of this needs assessment may then be placed in rank order and a plan developed for addressing them.

(5) What should be included in needs assessment?

- Distribute sample survey instrument (Appendix A: #8) and elicit from the participants suggestions for adding or deleting information from that instrument so that it suits the participants' particular needs. Write the suggestions on the blackboard. These suggestions may include, for example, size of class, level of class, ethnic composition of class, students' goals and needs, textbook currently being used, amount of ESL training background, rate of absenteeism, etc.

Stage 2 (Comprehension)

(1) Elicit from participants five different ways of assessing staff development needs.

(2) Ask participants to list at least ten questions that should be asked in a needs assessment survey.

Stage 3 (Application)

The application phase may consist of a case study. For example:

(1) Provide participants with the general characteristics of a program, giving minimal information such as characteristics of students, teacher background, and program size.

(2) Have participants, either individually or in groups, develop an instrument to assess the staff development needs of the staff in the above program.

Stage 4 (Synthesis)

Organize the participants into different groups, and have them establish characteristics of a program drawn from the programs they represent. Then have them develop a needs assessment form to gauge staff development needs.

Note: If participants will be training classroom teachers, not other potential trainers, refer them to Section IV.A.2 (page 25) of this manual on conducting a student needs assessment, and have them develop an instrument for that purpose, following the four stages of learning.

b. Program Analysis

Program analysis is still another type of technical assistance trainers are asked to provide. It consists of gathering information about a program in order to determine its effectiveness. The following workshop plan is designed to assist in training potential trainers to conduct a program analysis. For further information on conducting a program analysis, see Appendix A: #9.

Stage 1 (Knowledge)

In conducting a program analysis, the consultant/trainer has to gather information. One of the issues is whether or not the information being gathered is threatening or sensitive; the information-gathering strategy should therefore be selected accordingly. Inquiring as to how many students there are in a class, for example, is likely to be non-threatening, while asking whether or not student needs are being met by the program may well be a sensitive issue. The consultant can use a two-step process:

(1) Determine if the information being sought is sensitive/threatening.

(2) Choose an appropriate strategy.

Kind of Information	Strategy	Instrument
Threatening	indirect	informal observation formal observation
Non-threatening	direct	interview questionnaire

- Elicit from the group whether the gathering of the following information is threatening or non-threatening, keeping in mind that the same piece of information may be threatening to one program but not to another.

  Kind of information:

  - Number of classes/teachers
  - Textbook used
  - Effectiveness of teaching
  - Success in meeting student goals

Stage 2 (Comprehension)

(1) Have participants give an example of:

  a) threatening information
  b) non-threatening information

(2) Have participants identify a strategy and instrument for the examples given in 1a and 1b above.

Stage 3 (Application)

The application phase may consist of a case study. For example:

(1) Provide participants with six pieces of information that are desired, i.e., three threatening and three non-threatening.

(2) Divide participants into groups and ask them to analyze each item in order to determine the appropriate way to obtain the information.

Stage 4 (Synthesis)

Have participants work in small groups to list 4-6 pieces of information they would like to gather in a program analysis. Have them devise specific ways of getting each. They should report back to the larger group for discussion and feedback.

c. Levels (Stages) of Adult Learning

In training other potential trainers, it is important that they know, understand, and can manipulate each stage of adult learning in order to become an effective trainer. Thus, this final example is intended for use in teaching these levels.

Stage 1 (Knowledge)

(1) Present each of the four stages included in the levels of learning and give a definition of each stage (see page 11). List the stages and definitions on the blackboard.

(2) Elicit (and/or provide) possible modes of presentation for each stage (e.g., lecture, reading, demonstration, hands-on activity, discussion, problem-solving)

Stage 2 (Comprehension)

(1) Erase the list and elicit the four stages from the participants and ask them to re-state the definitions in their own words.

(2) Ask participants to sequence the stages and match them with modes/styles of presentation.

Stage 3 (Application)

In order to apply the levels of learning, a content area to which to apply it is now needed. The trainer may recommend content topics such as "Textbook Evaluation and Selection" (see page 30) or "Multilevel Classroom Instruction" to the participants. For further information on teaching in the multilevel classroom situation, see:

- Section IV.B.4 (page 37) of this manual.
- LORC, Adult Education Guide, #13, "ESL in the Multilevel Class" (Appendix B)
- Elliot-Evans, L. and B.L. Sosna. "What Goes on in a Portable Multilevel Classroom," Classroom Practices in Adult ESL. (Appendix B)

(1) Have participants suggest a content area.

(2) Have participants (in groups) develop a workshop/presentation outline using the four stages of learning for the specific content topic chosen.

Stage 4 (Synthesis)

Have participants discuss any problems (and the possible solutions) they had in working through the implementation of a workshop/presentation using the four stages of learning.

B. Skills of an Effective Trainer and Consultant

A trainer is many things to his/her audience. It would be impossible to list all of the skills and characteristics needed to be an effective trainer. Many of these skills can only be acquired through experience. However, some of the more important characteristics are listed below, with explanations where necessary.

The effective trainer exhibits:

1. Good listening skills

Being a good listener is important when conducting any kind of training, but active listening skills are of primary importance in a consultation (one-on-one) situation. Active listening skills may consist of affirming what the speaker has said, clarifying ideas expressed by the speaker, and trying out the options determined by the speaker.

2. Good interpersonal relationships

Having good interpersonal relationships encompasses many different, but related skills. They may include:

- inspiring trust and openness by being responsive and undefensive when critized.
- giving timely feedback.
- being able to resolve conflict, which is usually achieved through openness and giving feedback.
- having empathy, which involves respecting others' feelings and feeling free to express your own.

3. Flexibility

A trainer must be able to adjust the agenda and/or time schedule (even at a moment's notice) to meet the situation and/or needs of the audience.

4. Clarity

An effective trainer must be clear in explanations and activities. In addition to giving examples as often as needed, this may include:

- being relevant (to audience's needs)
- making presentations simple
- using a clear, structured progression to avoid overloading the audience.
- repeating key concepts by giving periodic summaries

5. Patience

6. A non-authoritarian attitude

   An effective trainer normally facilitates activities with quiet authority.

7. Non-judgmental behavior

   An effective trainer is able to openly express personal opinions, but does not impose these personal values or opinions on others.

For more information on this topic, see:

- Davis, Planning, Conducting, Evaluating Workshops.
- Escobar, Handbook for the ESL/ABE Administrator.

Both are cited in complete form in Appendix B.

IV. Topics of Concern

The preceding section contained samples of training activities in order to elucidate the procedures and principles of training. However, there was little discussion of the various topics (i.e., content areas) on which the trainer might need to provide technical assistance. This section, therefore, is devoted to a discussion of both the program and classroom concerns that administrators, coordinators and teachers may wish the trainer to address.

A. Program Concerns

This sub-section has been divided into eight short sections, encompassing most aspects of an ESL program: outreach and recruitment, intake and assessment, program design, testing, staffing, textbook evaluation and selection, staff development, and program evaluation.

1. Outreach and Recruitment

One of the areas of concern to a program is the process of locating potential students in the community and informing them of the available ESL services. In order to ensure that these services are accessible to as many students as possible, outreach and recruitment should be an integral part of a program.

For more detailed information on this process, see:

- Harmon and Robinson (eds.). Outreach, Information and Referral. (Appendix B)

2. Intake and Assessment

Another area of concern in a program is the system of student intake and assessment. The routine information requested during intake may be supplemented by an assessment of student's needs in order to plan instruction which is responsive to those needs. The student's family and cultural background, education and training background, as well as work experience and employment status

should be taken into account. In addition, the student's English and native language proficiency, and educational and employment goals (both long and short term) should be assessed.

A sample student needs assessment survey form appears in Appendix A: #10. It is written in English; however, for maximum effectiveness, it should be distributed to the students in their native language.

It may also be advisable upon intake to orient the students on an individual or group basis to the services the program currently provides. For further information on this area of concern see:

- Center for Applied Linguistics. Indochinese Students in U.S. Schools: A Guide for Administrators.
- Escobar. Handbook for the ESL/ABE Administrators.

Both are in Appendix B.

3. Program Design

In order to design an effective program, the students' needs, community resources, as well as budgetary limitations, should be taken into consideration. To meet the students' needs, the program may focus on different areas of ESL instruction.

Generally speaking, ESL instruction for refugees may focus on one of six major areas, i.e.

- ESL/ Survival
- ESL/ Literacy
- ESL/ Basic Skills
- ESL/ General Vocational
- ESL/ Occupation-Specific
- ESL/ Home Management

The goals for each instructional area should be written in measurable performance-based terms (see LORC Refugee Education Guide #12, "Teaching ESL to Competencies," in Appendix B, available from ERIC). This should be done at the local level, in order to serve local needs. The following are some examples of minimal competencies based on some of the above instructional areas:

ESL/Survival:

- The learner will be able to use the phone on a limited basis.
- The learner will be able to give personal information.

ESL/Literacy:

- The learner will be familiar with left to right progression.
- The learner will be able to identify numbers and letters.

ESL/General Vocational:

- The learner will be able to identify previous employment and education.

ESL/Home Management:

- The learner will demonstrate basic safety measures related to the use of electrical appliances.
- The learner will know proper ways of disposing of garbage.

For further information, see:

- Harmon and Robinson (eds.). Vocational Training and Skills Recertification.

4. Testing

Although testing may be a part of intake, it is an area of ongoing concern in a program. Two areas of testing that programs may wish to address are English language testing (both for placement and proficiency) and native-language testing.

Programs may choose to use either commercially available or teacher-made tests for the purposes of placement and achievement. Commercially available tests have the advantage of being formally reliable and valid. However, teacher-made tests are practically valid in that they are more relevant to the individual program and course designs.

Teacher-made (and program-developed) tests have become quite widespread in refugee ESL progams, since many of the commercial tests are written (i.e., not oral), and too advanced for many of the adult refugee students, who have minimal (if any) literacy skills. However, there are at least three new tests, CASAS (San Diego Community College District), BEST (Center for Applied Linguistics), HELP Test (Henderson and Moriarty) listed in Appendix B, which were written for the basic level(s) and may therefore meet a need in the field.

For further information on placement, proficiency and achievement testing and tests, see:

- LORC, Refugee Education Guide, General Information Series #20, English Language Testing

- Dieterich, T. and C. Freeman. A Linguistic Guide to English Proficiency Testing in Schools

- Illinois ESL/Adult Education Service Center. "Internal English Language Testing Program" (of the Illinois Adult Indochinese Refugee Consortium)

All are listed in Appendix B.

Native language testing provides valuable information for both placement and course design purposes. Knowing whether a student is literate, semi-literate, or non-literate in his/her native language indicates a need for ESL/literacy instruction as well as for slower-paced aural/oral instruction. For some native language literacy tests see:

- Center for Applied Linguistics. Indochinese Students in U.S. Schools: A Guide for Administrators. (pp. 55-68)

- Seward, Bernard. "Literacy Screening Questionnaire."

- Henderson, C. and P. Moriarty. The HELP Test. (native language component)

All are listed in Appendix B.

5. Staffing

Staffing is always an area of great concern to programs, since the success of any program depends greatly on the instructional, paraprofessional, and support staff. Any staffing plan must take the size, objectives, and budget of the program into consideration.

Job descriptions for all staff should be developed before hiring. Job descriptions may include, minimally, qualifications (i.e., education and experience), duties, hours (i.e., full- or part-time), and salary ranges. Job descriptions should reflect the skills/experience available in the (local) community.

Paraprofessional staff may include bilingual tutors or aides. Bilingual staff can provide invaluable services such as native-language intake, testing, and needs assessment. In addition, bilingual staff may be utilized in native-language orientation, counseling, and social service referrals. It is important to recognize that bilingual support staff not be regarded as mere language translators, but as interpreters of culture in order to bridge any cross-cultural gaps that may exist. In addition to a job description, recruitment sources for bilingual staff should be identified before hiring.

Volunteers can be considered an integral part of a staffing plan. Although they are not salaried, volunteers should be treated as a part of the staff, and thus be given job descriptions. Volunteers, whether working within an established program or providing a total program themselves, can fill many roles. They may provide, for example, community orientation, transportation, and/or tutorial services, among other things.

For further information about staff job descriptions, and the role of volunteers, see:

- Escobar, Handbook for the ESL/ABE Administrator.

- LORC, Refugee Education Guide Adult Series #10, "Teaching English to Refugee Adults: A Guide for Volunteers, Volunteer Coordinators, and Tutors."

Both are listed in Appendix B.

6. Textbook Evaluation and Selection

Although the process of textbook evaluation has been described previously (see pp. 13-14) in this manual, it is included as a topic here due to its importance in effective program delivery. Textbook selection must take into consideration students' needs and curriculum objectives as well as the teacher's experience and teaching style.

In addition to supplementary texts, more than one basic text might be considered to provide both variety and flexibility. Some important selection criteria follow:

- Is real-life language used in the text?
- Does the content of the text appeal to adults?
- Is the presentation (i.e., lay-out) clear, legible, and pleasing?
- Is there a clearly-written teacher's guide?
- Does the text allow for simple adaptation and supplementation?
- Is the cost reasonable?

For further information on textbook selection and materials, see:

- Section III.A.1.a of this manual (p. 13)
- Appendix A: #6 and #7
- Section IV.B.1 of this manual (p. 32)

7. Staff Development

As mentioned previously, the competency of the staff has direct bearing on the effectiveness of a program. The program administrator or coordinator may, therefore, wish to plan on-going in-service and staff training activities which would enable the staff to upgrade their knowledge and skills.

Such staff development activities should be compatible with the needs of the staff (see pp. 17-18 and Appendix A: #8), which may be diverse; some of the staff may be inexperienced in ESL, while others may be experienced but not with refugees. The full- or part-time nature of the staff should also be taken into consideration when planning a training activity, so all who wish to do so may take advantage of it.

For further information on topics that may be addressed in training sessions and the implications of staff development, see:

- "Handouts on Request" (Appendix A: #11)

- California Council on the Education of Teachers. "Research on Adult Development: Implications for Staff Development" (Appendix B)

8. Program Evaluation

A final area of major concern to a program is internal evaluation. The purpose of the evaluation is twofold: to determine whether the expected impact on the target community has been achieved; and to ascertain effectiveness in order to improve program planning, management and implementation.

The evaluation should encompass student progress and satisfaction, as well as instructional and administrative staff effectiveness. In addition, overall program impact in terms of goal attainment should be examined.

The student evaluation may consist of both pre- and post-test results, an attitudinal survey, and records on both student recruitment and retention, among other things.

The instructional staff evaluation may consist of a classroom observation and/or peer evaluation survey which takes into account teaching techniques and teacher performance.

Overall program effectiveness should be evaluated in terms of measurable outcomes such as number of job placements, number of program graduates, number of students moved from one level to the next, and the number of students removed from public assistance.

These are just some of the areas that may be examined in the process of evaluation. For a good example of a complete program evaluation instrument, see:

- Office of Refugee Resettlement, Region I. "Self-Evaluation Questionnaire" (Appendix B)

B. Classroom Concerns

The sub-section on classroom concerns has been divided into four specific areas: matching curriculum resources with the skills of instructional staff, matching the instructional approaches with the background and needs of the student, incorporating culture, and grouping.

1. Matching Curriculum Resources with the Skills of the Instructional Staff

One factor which contributes to effective instruction is the matching of curriculum resources with the skills of the instructional staff. Curriculum resources may consist of outlines, actual lesson plans, and directions for teachers.

At the administrative level, the curriculum is usually in the form of an outline consisting of a list of either topics or objectives. The list of topics may include such items as transportation, banking, and housing, while the list of objectives may include such goals as being able to buy a bus ticket, fill out a personal check, and use classified ads to find appropriate housing. These lists serve as a framework for instruction. They identify content and sequencing; they do not provide the lessons themselves.

At the instructional level, the curriculum is usually in the form of specific activities for the learner. In addition to the topic (e.g., transportation) and/or the objective (e.g., being able to buy a bus ticket), the curriculum includes the specific materials and activities for the instructor to use to accomplish the objective. Materials and activities which accomplish the same objective may vary from class to class or text to text. For example, to accomplish the objective of being able to buy a bus ticket, the activities may consist of a total physical response exercise:

Open your wallet.
Take out a quarter.
Put it in the fare box.

a substitution drill:

A one-way ticket to Center City, please.
round-trip Northside
excursion etc.

or a dialogue:

A: How much is the fare?
B: 25¢
A: Here you are.
B: Thank you.

Many commercially-produced materials now include a teacher's guide as well as a student text. The teacher's guide contains directions on how to use and supplement the activities in the student text.

In selecting curriculum materials, it is important to take into consideration the level of experience of the instructional staff. Materials with "how-to's" for teachers are appropriate for teachers and tutors with no experience. Materials with no guides, or materials which require some adaptation, are appropriate for teachers and tutors with some experience. Only experienced teachers can be effective at extensive adaptation or materials development.

The inexperienced and less experienced instructional staff may need special assistance in the areas of classroom management/lesson planning and drilling. For further information on these topics, see:

- "Classroom Management" (Appendix A: #12)

- Sheeler, Willard D. Welcome to English (Introductory Teacher's Manual, pp. 24-28) (Appendix B)

2. Matching Instructional Approaches with Student Background and Needs

In addition to matching resources with the skills of the staff, it is important to match the instructional approaches/techniques with the background and needs of the student.

One significant distinction in the background of refugee/immigrant adults is their level of education, which tend to form three distinct groups. Pre-literate students (from cultures with no written language) and non-literate students comprise one group, while the second group is made up of students with minimal education (e.g., 1-4 years) in their home country. The third group comprises students who are educated in their home country and are thus literate in their native language.

A second significant distinction for refugee/immigrant education is their language needs, i.e., their purpose for studying English. Their needs may range from survival to occupational-specific English (see Appendix A: #4).

Frequently, knowledge of the students' background helps in determining their needs or in setting realistic objectives. For example, students with minimal education and those who are educated/literate may both have occupational goals. However, a realistic objective for students with minimal education might be semi-skilled or entry-level jobs, whereas a realistic goal for the educated/literate students might be skilled or semi-professional employment. Sometimes students may have a dual goal. For example, pre- or non-literate students need to become literate not only for survival purposes, but for employment and home management purposes as well.

Two examples of how instructional techniques might be determined by the students' educational background follow: one example concerns pre- or non-literate students, and the other concerns educated/literate students.

In instructing pre- and non-literate students, the relationship between sound and print needs to be established. Therefore, realia (three-dimensional objects) precede abstractions (pictures of objects and printed names of objects). The discipline and concentration required for study has not yet been acquired by these students; therefore, a greater variety of activities, with a shorter time spent on each one, makes for more effective instruction. Writing is another skill yet to be acquired; therefore, language reinforcement activities which require minimal reading and writing skills are also more effective. For example, an activity which requires matching a sight word with a visual may be better than one which requires writing the sight word itself; or assigning students to arrange word cards into sentence order may prove more effective than asking the students to write the sentence.

For additional information on working with pre- and non-literate students, see:

- ACSA/ESL. "Nonliterate Adult ESL Students"

- Haverson, W. and J. Haynes. ESL Literacy for Adult Learners

- LORC. Refugee Education Adult Ed. #9, "Teaching ESL to Non-literate Adults"

For instructional materials designed specifically for pre- and non-literate ESL students, see:

- Mrowicki, L. and P. Furnborough. A New Start.

- Celce-Murcia and MacIntosh. Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language (article by Dorothy Lewis)

- Longfield, D. Passage to ESL Literacy.
- Haverson and Haynes. Modulearn ESL Literacy Program.
- Wigfield, Jack. First Steps in Reading and Writing.

All are listed in Appendix B.

In training educated/literate students from Asian cultures, there is often an expectation that language learning consists of the teacher lecturing about grammar. To be effective, instructional strategies must not only meet these students' expectations of an academic, grammatical focus, but also wean them from their expectations in order to move them into interaction activities and the concept of the teacher as facilitator.

Of course, the number of students in any one group--whether groups are determined by educational background, or by purpose for studying English, or a combination of the two--determines the model. Classes may be sufficiently homogenous so that similar strategies work for the whole class; strategies may need to vary for groups or individuals within the class; or individuals may be pulled out for special instruction or for one-on-one tutoring.

3. Incorporating Culture

Language training cannot be accomplished without, at some point, coming in contact with the target language cultural values, which cannot be ignored. These cultural values can be incorporated into ESL classroom instruction through the use of bilingual aides/staff, the use of native-language materials, and/or the use of specific types of learning activities, such as values clarification and problem-solving.

Bilingual aides may be hired specifically to act as interpreters of culture in the classroom, and it is important to use them as such. That is, they should not be used as walking dictionaries or interpreters of the language lesson. Teachers must take care to use them only to transmit cultural information and to help resolve cultural conflicts. If bilingual aides are not possible on a permanent basis, programs may wish to consider requesting bilingual staff from other agencies to conduct weekly cultural orientation sessions.

If the students are literate, native-language materials are another way of explaining cultural information and values that are encountered during language lessons. Two possible cultural information sources are:

- Center for Applied Linguistics. Your New Life in the United States. (in Vietnamese, Lao, Chinese, Spanish, Khmer, Hmong, and Haitian Creole)

- Savage, K. Lynn et al. English That Works. (native language component in Vietnamese, Spanish, and Chinese)

If bilingual aides and native-language materials are unavailable, the teacher may incorporate culture by choosing learning activities, such as values clarification and problem-solving, which target potential cultural conflicts and highlight cultural values. There are several texts which contain these types of activities. Some of them (all listed in Appendix B) are:

- Alexander, L. G. Take a Stand.
- Alexander, L. G. Talk It Over.
- Bassano, Sharon. Look Who's Talking.
- Byrd, Donald and I. Clemente-Cabetas. React-Interact.
- Ford, Carol K. and A. Silverman. American Cultural Encounters.
- Pifer, George and N. Mutoh. Points of View.
- Rooks, George. Non-Stop Discussion Workbook.

4. Grouping

The purpose of grouping is to facilitate the teaching/learning process. The premise is that a group of students at a similar level are more easily taught than a group of students at diverse levels. Students may be grouped according to any one or a combination of the following:

- language level (e.g., beginning, intermediate, advanced)
- needs/goals (e.g., survival, vocational)
- background (e.g., same language group, similar educational level)

There are levels of grouping--one in determining classes and one in determining grouping of students within a class. Grouping is especially important due to two characteristics of many adult education classes--open entry/open exit and multilevel classes.

"Open entry/open exit" describes courses in which students may enroll at any time in the cycle or semester, i.e., after several days, weeks or months of instruction. As a result, even in classes originally leveled, a multi-level situation develops. When there is an open enrollment policy, class-contained lessons are especially effective. "Class-contained" lessons means that a specific competency is taught for mastery within one class period. The intention is to avoid boring, and thus losing, old entrants with catch-up activities designed for new entrants. Catch-up activities for new entrants can be devised which utilize "peer" tutors--old entrants teaching new entrants in individualized activities. These individualized activities are in addition to whole group activities, which are needed to build classroom rapport.

The term "multilevel" usually refers to classes in which students are at a variety of language levels (beginning, intermediate and advanced) from the beginning. In such situations, grouping is essential for language development activities to be appropriate for each of the various groups.

For further information and activities for both open entry/open exit and multilevel classes, see:

- LORC. Refugee Education Adult Series #12. "Teaching ESL to Competencies." (Appendix B)

- LORC. Refugee Education Adult Series #13. "ESL in the Multilevel Class." (Appendix B)

- Elliot-Evans and Sosna. "What Goes on in a Portable Multilevel Classroom." (Appendix B)

- "Lesson Plan for Multi-Level Class." (Appendix A: #13)

A special consideration to remember in grouping is that each of the levels--beginning, intermediate, and advanced--needs activities in each of the language skill areas--listening, speaking, reading, and writing. It is often easy to let the reading and writing skills dominate activities for the intermediate and advanced students because of the ease in setting them up.

V. Workshop Delivery

A. Planning for a Workshop

Much preparation usually precedes any on-site training activities. This consists, minimally, of conducting a needs assessment, selecting a workshop topic(s), arranging for facilities, and planning the agenda.

1. Conducting a Needs Assessment

The golden rule of an effective workshop is "Know Thy Audience." This means that a needs assessment of the participants must be conducted to determine the content of the workshop. (See Section III.A.2.a) This can be accomplished by any of the following methods:

- phone survey of key informants (e.g., administrator, education coordinator)
- pre-workshop questionnaires or on-site visit
- conversations with teachers and students
- classroom observation

The trainer may want to ask some of the following questions:

- What are the felt needs of the participants?
  (For example, curriculum development, classroom techniques, methods and materials, classroom management, working with volunteers, literacy, pronunciation, testing)
- What is the description of the program(s)?
  (For example, program objectives, length and frequency of the cycle, materials used, staffing patterns and qualifications, method of evaluation, source of funding)

- What are the characteristics of the participants?

  (For example, educational background, level of experience, full or part-time position)

- What are the characteristics of the students served by the participants?

  (For example, ethnic background, literate/non-literate, level of English language proficiency, educational background, employment status, needs, goals)

- How many participants are expected?

2. Selecting the Workshop Topic(s)

After the needs assessment is conducted, the topic(s) for the workshop should be selected. Selection should be based on the prioritized data compiled. What can be treated in the workshop depends not only on the knowledge of the participants, but also on the length of the training session (e.g., ½ day, 1 day, 2 days)

3. Scheduling and Arranging the Workshop

The workshop should be arranged for a date, time, and location that is convenient for both the trainer and the participants. The trainer should also take the following into consideration:

- The length of the workshop should be appropriate to the topic(s) and purpose.

- The site of the workshop should be adequate to accommodate the number of participants and the needs of the trainer.

- Requests and/or arrangements for audio-visual equipment should be made with sufficient advance notice.

- Availability of photocopying facilities should be ascertained.

- Arrangements for coffee and lunch should be made (i.e., the responsibility for this should be designated).

- Travel plans should allow enough time for the unexpected.

- Monetary concerns (e.g., honorarium, travel expenses, consulting fee) should be discussed beforehand.

- Participants should be notified as to date, time, and place of workshop and registration procedures (i.e., the responsibility for this is designated).

4. Planning the Agenda in Detail

Even though the workshop topic(s) have already been selected, the trainer still needs to draw up a more detailed agenda (see sample agendas in Appendix A: #14 and #15). This is important in order to build variety into the workshop's presentation to meet the varying needs and learning styles of the participants. It is also important in order to pace the workshop appropriately. The following must be taken into consideration when drawing up an agenda:

- sufficient and periodic breaks

- activities which involve at least some movement within the room

- a good balance between small group/large group activities

- an appropriate amount of time for <u>each</u> of the stages of learning (i.e., don't shortchange application and synthesis)

Also to be taken into consideration when drawing up the agenda is the progression involved. Most effective training begins with introductions, ice-breaking activities, and clarification of workshop objectives to make par-

ticipants comfortable. There should also be time allowed at the beginning for participants to express their feelings about the agenda and their expectations for the workshop. The trainer can then make last minute changes in the agenda to meet the needs and expectations of the participants.

A word is in order here about the role of cross-cultural concerns in the training of language instructors. Since language cannot be taught without addressing cultural concerns, the trainer may want to incorporate some cultural awareness activities into almost any training session. To this end a description of some cultural sensitivity activities is included in Appendix A: #16 and #17.

B. Conducting the Workshop

1. Setting Up

The trainer should arrive at the workshop site well ahead of the participants in order to check on the equipment (if any) and arrange the furniture according to specific needs. The trainer can also make sure that all the materials will get distributed. For example, materials can be placed on each desk or at the registration table. The trainer will then be ready to greet the participants as they arrive.

2. Establishing a Good Learning Climate

An effective trainer always remembers to introduce him/herself, outline expectations and procedures for the workshop, and specify the number of breaks that will be taken. Participants must also be given an opportunity to introduce themselves. This is important in establishing a comfortable, friendly learning climate. The trainer may wish to have an "ice-breaking" activity, such as pairing participants (who are unacquainted with each other), and giving them 5-10 minutes to find out as much about each other as is necessary in order to introduce each other. For further suggestions on other "ice-breaking" activities, see:

- Olsen, J.W.B. Communication Starters. (Appendix B)

Before beginning the workshop, a discussion of the participants' expectations and desires is in order. Open-ended questions are often an effective means of obtaining this kind of information. For examples of such questions see Appendix A: #18 and #19.

3. Directing and Facilitating Learning Activities

An effective trainer uses materials and equipment appropriately and offers participants clear instructions for all learning activities. It is wise to check all A-V equipment before the workshop begins.

C. Evaluating the Workshop

An important part of every workshop for a trainer is the feedback received. If the program (or institution) which requested the training does not have its own evaluation form, the trainer may want to provide his/her own. Always leave enough time at the end of the training session for participants to fill out the evaluation form (anonymously). Evaluations are important for a trainer's files in order to refine skills and for information for a possible follow-up training session with the same group of participants. For more information on evaluation, see the sample workshop evaluation form in Appendix A: #20.

VI. Accessing Resources

As is probably quite evident by now, the trainer needs many and varied resources in order to obtain much of the information and material necessary to meet the requests and demands of ESL teachers, coordinators, and administrators. A short description of some of the major resources which may be useful, and how to obtain them, follows.

A. Professional Associations

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) is an international organization with affiliates across the nation as well as overseas. It sponsors local, regional, and international conferences, and issues a newsletter, journal, and other publications as well. In addition, there are special interest sections (such as adult education and refugee concerns), all of which are a good source of information. The trainer will find the conferences, publications, and special interest sections an effective way of keeping in touch with current methodologies, techniques, materials, and concerns in the profession. The TESOL headquarters is located at:

TESOL
Georgetown University
202 D.C. Transit Building
Washington, D.C. 20057
(202) 625-569

State affiliates are listed in Appendix A: #21.

The National Association for Public Continuing and Adult Education (NAPCAE), which will merge with the Adult Education Association (AEA) in November, 1982 to become the American Association for Adult and Continuing Education (AAACE), is an organization devoted to the concerns of adult students, which include the refugee population. This organization holds conferences and issues a newsletter which may be of interest to the trainer. It is located at:

NAPCAE/AAACE
1201 16th Street, N.W., Suite 301
Washington, D.C. 20036
(202) 822-7866

The National Association for Vietnamese American Education (NAVAE) may be a useful resource to the trainer who must deal with programs serving the Southeast Asian (particularly Vietnamese) refugees. This organization, too, holds an annual convention on refugee education and social services and issues a newsletter, among other things. For further information contact:

Dr. Nguyen M. Hung, Director
Indochina Institute
George Mason University
4400 University Drive
Fairfax, VA 22030
703/323-2065

The Society for Intercultural Education Training and Research (SIETAR) is an international association of diverse individuals and institutions concerned with promoting effective intercultural interaction. In addition to a journal, this organization also issues a newsletter and other publications. It also holds an annual conference and presents periodic workshops and seminars. The trainer may find this organization a good source of cross-cultural information and materials. For further information contact:

SIETAR
1414 22nd Street, N.W., Suite 102
Washington, DC 20037
202/862-1990

B. Clearinghouses

Clearinghouses are another good source of information and materials. The twelve Educational Resource and Information Centers (ERIC) located throughout the country are each devoted to a specific area of study, and maintain and distribute microfiche collections on particular topics. ERIC clearinghouses can also do computer searches for a fee.

The ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, located at the Center for Applied Linguistics in Washington, D.C., will probably be of most use to the

language trainer. Fortunately, there are 750 institutions (such as libraries) across the country which subscribe to ERIC/CLL and thus have the same microfiche collection as is housed at the headquarters; check the nearest university library. If there is no institutional subscriber to ERIC in the vicinity, copies of ERIC documents can be obtained from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS). To order from EDRS a search number is needed, and all orders must be pre-paid. Any ERIC document listed in the bibliography (Appendix B) will also have a search number (or ED number). An EDRS order form, with address and price list, can be found in Appendix A: #22.

The Indochinese Refugee Action Center (IRAC), a non-profit refugee information organization, has published several materials and reports that the trainer may find of interest. Some of these are listed in Appendix B. To obtain them and other publications, contact:

IRAC
1424 16th Street, NW, Suite 404
Washington, DC 20036
(202) 667-7810

The National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education (NCBE) is a storehouse of resources and information on bilingual policies, programs and materials for both children and adults. NCBE issues a newsletter and maintains a toll-free telephone number. It is located at:

National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education
1300 Wilson Blvd.
Suite B2-11
Rosslyn, VA 22209
800/336-4560

The Refugee Materials Center in Kansas City has a collection of K-12 ESL and bilingual materials in the major Southeast Asian languages as well as in Spanish, Afghani, and Russian. These materials are available to the public. Some materials, such as textbooks, must be purchased, while other materials are available free-of-charge or for duplication costs only.

To receive their bibliography and for further information, please contact:

Mr. James Tumy
Department of Education
324 East 11th Street, 9th Floor
Kansas City, MO 64106
816/374-6294

C. Ongoing Staff Development Resources

The staff developer/teacher trainer should make an effort to be in contact with other staff developers, or staff development projects, whether or not their speciality is ESL, for they are an excellent source of information and materials as well as a place for referral of clients. Most States Departments of Education have an Adult Basic Education (ABE) division, which usually includes ESL. The ABE division often sponsors staff development sessions.

D. Colleges and Universities

Colleges and universities which have a Department of Education (or specifically Adult Education) are a good resource for trainers who will be instructing others in becoming trainers/staff developers. Their materials, methods, and even an occasional classroom observation of a teacher training class can be quite informative for the trainer. These institutions can also provide college credit for attending approved workshops. The trainer might want to contact them about this possibility.

E. Networking

Just as networking with other community-based organizations that serve refugees is essential for an effective ESL program, networking is also valuable in training. It serves as a way of uncovering training needs in the field as well as ascertaining the current points of view. Networking is also of major value in identifying resource people and model programs.

Many highly-impacted urban areas have formed refugee coalitions or forums made up of representatives from mutual assistance associations (MAA's), social service and public health agencies, employment agencies, ESL programs, and voluntary agency affiliates. If a coalition exists in a community where training is to take place, the trainer may want to communicate with a member of the coalition to identify the ethnic make-up of the community, the concerns to be addressed, and/or some resource people.

Voluntary agencies (volags), which are initially responsible for resettling most of the incoming refugees, have affiliates across the country, usually in highly-impacted areas. These volag affiliates often coordinate ESL programs, in addition to working in all other areas of refugee resettlement. Both national voluntary agencies and their affiliates can be valuable sources of information. A list of the headquarters of the major voluntary agencies can be found in Appendix A: #23.

In addition to the resources, the trainer may also want to be in contact with retired teachers associations, ESL teacher training institutions, and mutual assistance associations. These groups can be an invaluable source of volunteerism and assistance in training and developing support systems for skeleton ESL programs.

San Diego Community College District

APPENDIX A: #1

(This form should be translated into the students' language.)

STUDENT NEEDS ASSESSMENT

Your E.S.L. teacher would like to help you learn what you want to learn.

Please answer the following questions to help your teacher meet your needs.

What is the main reason you are attending this E.S.L. class?

_____

_____

_____

What do you think is most important for you to learn in this class?

(Mark an X by the ones you think are most important)

_____listening/understanding

_____speaking

_____reading

_____writing

_____spelling

_____pronunciation

_____conversation

_____translating

_____grammar

_____other

Do you have a special need to use English for a specific reason or situation right away?_____yes _____no

If yes, please explain:

_____

_____

_____

I want to learn English in order to: (Please check those that are important to you)

_____ 1. read signs, labels, instructions

_____ 2. shop for clothing, food, appliances, furniture

_____ 3. get a driver's license

_____ 4. buy or take care of a car

_____ 5. read and understand standard highway signs

_____ 6. travel by: _____car _____bus _____train _____airplane

_____ 7. enter a job training program

_____ 8. get a job

_____ 9. change jobs

_____10. understand my paycheck

_____11. get a promotion

_____12. talk to the nurse, doctor, dentist

_____13. talk to my child's teacher or principal

_____14. write notes to my child's teacher

_____15. read notices the teacher sends home

_____16. help my child with his/her homework

_____17. do volunteer work at a school

_____18. attend school meetings

_____19. attend other adult education classes

_____20. attend a university

_____21. become a citizen

_____22. use the telephone book

_____23. answer the telephone

_____24. make telephone calls

_____25. make appointments by telephone

_____26. participate in religious services/meetings

_____27. do volunteer work at a church

_____28. do volunteer work at a hospital

_____29. do volunteer work at a recreation center

_____30. read newspapers, books, magazines

_____31. talk to my husband, wife, in-laws, neighbors

_____32. talk to my apartment manager or landlord

_____33. write checks

_____34. write personal or business letters

_____35. keep a file of family papers, documents

_____36. make new friends

_____37. fill out applications (or use the services of):

_____jobs	_____banking	_____schools
_____welfare	_____insurance	_____unemployment
_____utilities	_____food stamps	_____medical & dental
_____credit	_____housing	_____labor unions
_____permits	_____social security	_____postal services

_____38. get legal services for:

_____disability claims	_____unfair labor practices
_____immigration	_____adoption
_____divorce	_____child support

NEEDS ASSESSMENT ADVISORY COMMITTEE

APPENDIX A: #2

Name: _____

Agency/Organization: _____

Address: _____ Telephone: _____

1. In your opinion, how important is it that adult students receive instruction in each of the following areas:

	Very Important	Somewhat Important	Not Important
a. Basic speaking, reading writing, and math skills.	_____	_____	_____
b. Application of basic skills to life situations	_____	_____	_____
c. Basic skills related to the world of work.	_____	_____	_____
d. Preparation for entering a high school completion program.	_____	_____	_____
e. Preparation for entering college or university program.	_____	_____	_____
f. Preparation for entering vocational skills training.	_____	_____	_____

2. In your opinion, what are the strong points (most effective components) of the existing adult education ABE/ESL program?

3. In your opinion, how could the ABE/ESL program which is offered through adult education be improved?

4. What do you feel should be included in the district ABE/ESL program that (1) is not now included and (2) could logically be included.

5. In what ways can the ABE/ESL program be strengthened through consultation, cooperation or coordination with your agency or business?

6. Please indicate how important you feel it is for adult students to receive instruction in each of the following areas:

	Very Important	Somewhat Important	Not Important
a. Using money			
b. Budgeting			
c. Comparison shopping			
d. Using and maintaining household appliances			
e. Buying and maintaining a car			
f. Using banking services			
g. Credit systems			
h. Resources for consumer complaints			
i. Using community services			
j. Obtaining a driver's license			
k. Federal, state and local government			
l. Personal rights and freedom in the U.S.			
m. Medical and health services			
n. Vocational testing and counseling			
o. Parenting skills in a new culture			

p. Job search skills _____ _____ _____

q. Techniques for holding a job _____ _____ _____

r. Job upgrading, promotion _____ _____ _____

s. Financial & legal aspects of employment _____ _____ _____

t. Safety and emergencies _____ _____ _____

u. U.S. Legal System _____ _____ _____

v. Cultural awareness (knowing about American way of life.) _____ _____ _____

w. Basic Literacy (Reading and writing skills) _____ _____ _____

x. Other - please be specific

_____

_____

The San Diego Community College District Adult and Continuing Education
5350 University Avenue., San Diego, CA 92105 (714)230-2039

Orientation ESL

Designed for absolute beginning students, especially those with no reading and writing skills in any language.

Provides an orientation to the classroom situation and learning process.Builds the foundation of listening, speaking and literacy skills necessary to be successful in a Beginning ESL class.

Beginning ESL

Basic oral communication skills related to everyday survival. Assessment of student needs, goals, interests, and educational backgrounds.

General ESL

Emphasis on the oral and written communication skills needed to function in an urban American environment.

Pre-Vocational ESL

Listening, speaking, reading and writing activities designed specifically for employment-related skills development. Evaluation of occupational history, abilities, interests and goals, and transferability of skills.

Academic ESL

Oral and written communication skills needed by students interested in completing work towards a high school diploma or entering a college or university program.

Vocational ESL

Listening, speaking, reading, and writing activities directly related to a specific occupation, as well as advanced pre-vocational ESL skills development.

Referral to Vocational Skills Training and/or Employment.

Appendix A: #4

See: Center for Applied Linguistics, Refugee Education Guides Adult Education Series #11, "Program Considerations for English as a Second Language." ED 207 349 (22p.)

THE FOLLOWING VERBS MAY BE USEFUL IN DISCUSSING, THINKING OR CREATING QUESTIONS ABOUT THE SIX LEVELS OF BLOOM'S TAXONOMY COGNITIVE DOMAIN.

1. KNOWLEDGE

discuss
define
memorize
repeat
record
list
recall
name
relate

2. COMPREHENSION

discuss
restate
describe
recognize
explain
express
identify
locate
report
review
tell

3. APPLICATION

translate
interpret
apply
employ
use
demonstrate
dramatize
practice
illustrate
operate
schedule
shop
sketch

4. ANALYSIS

distinguish
analyze
differentiate
appraise
calculate
experiment
test
compare
contract
criticize
diagram
inspect
debate
inventory
question
relate
solve
examine

5. SYNTHESIS

compose
plan
propose
design
formulate
arrange
assemble
collect
construct
create
set up
organize
manage
prepare

6. EVALUATION

judge
appraise
evaluate
rate
compare
value
revise
score
select
choose
assess
estimate
measure
inspect

Factors To Consider When Evaluating Texts

1. What method is the book based on?
   a. Do you feel comfortable with it?
   b. Would you as a teacher enjoy using the book?
   c. Is it appropriate to your teaching style and class objectives?
2. Is the material of interest to the target population?
   a. Can the students relate to the materials in terms of setting, (rural/city, university/work world) life styles, etc.
3. Does the unit/lesson design provide for a progressive development of skills? (See hand out on lesson design)
   a. Are the dialogues useful and realistic?
   b. Are the reading and writing activities introducted at an appropriate time?
   c. How is pronunciation practice dealt with and is it adequate?
   d. How is grammar presented? Is it done with detailed explanation or through the use of models and examples?
   e. How is vocabulary presented? Is it recycled and reviewed?
   f. What is the proportion of time spent on each area and does it correspond to the course objectives?
4. Is the language used authentic? Is it appropriate for the students you will be working with?
5. Is the native language used in the text? If so, is it appropriate?
6. Does the text provide accurate cultural information?
7. Are supplemental activities provided?
8. Is there a teacher's manual and how complete is it?
9. Are there A-V materials available - such as visuals, tapes, flashcards, etc?
10. Are there supplementary readers, workbooks, test, etc. available?

Adapted from: Teaching Foreign Language Skills by: Wilga Rivers

Prepared by: Patricia DeHesus

INDOCHINA TEACHER TRAINING CENTER
500 South Dwyer Avenue
Arlington Heights IL 60005

12/3/79/sbm

MINIMAL CRITERIA FOR EVALUATING BASIC TEXTS

FOR ADULT ESL STUDENTS

1. The spoken language must be emphasized. This should be the idiomatic, unstilted, natural conversation used by most English-speaking Americans.

2. Materials should be culturally informative. At beginning levels this means teaching the student appropriate use of language for coping with everyday and emergency situations in the United States. At more advanced levels, American attitudes, hopes, expectations, customs, history, government, and literature should be included.

3. Emphasis should be on communication, not on grammatical perfection. Knowledge of grammar should not be an end in itself.

4. Drills and exercises should be meaningful, not mechanical.

5. The content must be suitable for foreign adults, including those with little education.

6. Illustrations of people should include a variety of ethnic groups, not just white Americans.

©Jean Chapman, Illinois ESL/ABE Service Center, Arlington Hts., Ill., 1976

ILLINOIS ESL/ABE SERVICE CENTER
500 South Dwyer Avenue
Arlington Heights, IL 60005
(312) 255-9830

San Diego Community College District
Needs Assessment
ESL Staff Development Survey

Please assist us in planning together for the most effective staff development program by responding to the following questions:

1. What level ESL do you teach?

   Beginning (100-200)_____ Intermediate (300-400)_____

   Advanced (500-600)_____ Multi-level_____

2. Are there other ESL classes at the same location at the same hour?_____

   If so, how many?_____

3. What major ethnic backgrounds are represented in your class?

   _____1. Hispanic
   _____2. Vietnamese
   _____3. Lao
   _____4. Hmong
   _____5. Cambodian
   _____6. Chinese
   _____7. Iranian
   _____8. other_____

4. What is the major reason your students are studying English? To acquire or prepare for:

   _____1. survival (coping) skills
   _____2. vocational training
   _____3. job or job upgrading
   _____4. high school diploma
   _____5. college/university
   _____6. other_____

5. What do you think is most important for your students to learn? Rank the following in order of importance:

   _____listening/understanding
   _____oral communication
   _____written communication
   _____reading
   _____grammar
   _____spelling
   _____pronunciation
   _____other (please specify)

6. Rank the following language skills in the order in which you believe they should be taught.

   _____reading
   _____listening
   _____speaking
   _____writing

7. Which language teaching methodolgies do you use in your class?

_____audio-lingual
_____grammar/translation
_____silent way
_____language lab
_____other (please specify)_____

_____total physical response
_____peer tutoring
_____counseling learning/community language learning

8. Which textbook(s) are you currently using? _____
_____

9. What supplementary instructional materials do you use in your class?
_____
_____

10. What type of instructional materials, not presently available, do you feel would be helpful to your students? _____
_____

11. Please respond to the following questions using this key:

A = a great deal B = quite a bit C = a moderate amount
D = only a little bit E = not at all

To what extent has your previous training or experience prepared you to:

_____a. Make initial assessment of the competencies of students entering your program.
_____b. Plan and conduct your ESL class to meet the individual needs and goals of each student.
_____c. Use a variety of instructional materials and teaching/learning strategies to allow for differences in the learning styles of your students.
_____d. Use audio-visual materials to support and reinforce instruction.
_____e. Plan activities that provide meaningful, real life oral communication/conversation experiences for your students.
_____f. Provide activities which allow students to progress at their own rates.
_____g. Develop literacy skills of non or limited English speaking adults.
_____h. Organize group activities that promote problem-solving and interpersonal relationship skills.
_____i. Evaluate competencies (ability to use the English needed to cope in everyday life) of students.

12. Please indicate your preference of day and time for staff development workshops.

_____Friday _____Saturday _____other (please specify)_____
Hours_____ _____

Please add any comments or suggestions about the kind of staff development program that would be most useful to you:

A program analysis may examine many critical and sensitive aspects of data collection. Consequently, a number of conflicts can arise. An anlysis plan should reflect an awareness of potential problems, and should specify to which existing information (e.g., student records) the trainer may have access and what she/he may do with such information. Agreement should be reached as to anonymity of sources of information - when such anonymity is deemed appropriate. The plan should stipulate as clearly as possible contingencies on delivering the promised information by a predetermined date. There should be agreement as to who will have access to the report and who will not.

CONDUCT OF A PROGRAM ANALYSIS

Use confidential information appropriately
Avoid invasion of privacy
Obtain permission for use of certain information
Maintain open exchange of ideas
Tell participants in the program what the analysis will involve and provide

In an attempt to focus the program analysis critical issues or variables to be examined must be defined. A next step is an identification of the information relevant to each issue or variable and the likely sources of that information (e.g., learners, citizen committees, class activities). Next, it must be determined how much information should be collected and from what proportion of the data sources (which sampling procedures to use). Once these estimates have been made, appropriate instruments and procedures should be selected or constructed and data gathered. Finally, the comparison of data (including judgments) with appropriate standards is also essential.

Questions about timing of information collection, explanations as to why certain information is being collected, and means of coding and storing information must be considered.

The process of program analysis, as well as the utilization of the results, requires a clear understanding of the social, personal and political dynamics surrounding any educational activity. The plan should show how the results will "fit" into these dynamics, if any satisfactory use is to be made of the information.

People will be more likely to use program analysis information if they perceive the process and/or resulting information as relevant to their needs, if they see the potential benefits deriving from the analysis and if they find the results to be available when needed. People who have been involved in the original planning and implementation are more likely to use the results than those who were not.

WAYS TO ENCOURAGE USE

To develop commitment involve people from inside and outside the program in the process
Report results when desired by project staff
Indicate alternative courses of action
Indicate implications of the findings
Make presentation clear and attractive
Provide assistance for additional analyses of results as needed
Provide technical assistance for implementation of suggestions
Provide time for the study and use of findings
Results should be valid
Reporting of results should take into consideration the background and orientation of audience
Reporting must show sensitivity to political/social factions

Adapted from: Evaluation in Adult Basic Education: How and Why. Grotelueschen, Arden D, Goolder, Dennis and Knox, Alan. The Interstate Printers and Publishers, Inc. Danville, Illinois, 1976

San Diego Community College District

STUDENT NEEDS ASSESSMENT (INTAKE)

We want to help you learn the English that you need right now.

What is the most important reason you have for attending English class?

I need English to:

1. Get along in my new country. (shop, go to the doctor, fill out forms, talk to American friends or neighbors) _____
2. Learn how to get a job. _____
3. Take vocational skills training classes. _____
4. Get a better job. _____
5. Go to high school. _____
6. Go to college/university. _____

I need practice in:
(check the ones that are most important to you!)

____ listening/understanding
____ speaking
____ reading
____ writing
____ spelling
____ grammar
____ pronunciation
____ conversation
____ other
_____

San Diego Community College District

1. Name _____

2. Where were you born? City _____

Country _____

3. When did you come to the U.S.? _____

4. Do you go to any other English class? _____ Where? _____

5. How many years did you attend school in your country? _____

6. Did you go to University/College? _____

How many years? _____

7. Did you go to Vocational/Technical Training Schools? _____

How many years? _____

8. What languages can you speak? _____

_____

9. What languages can you read? Where did you study? For how long?

10. What languages can you write? _____

_____

ILLINOIS STATEWIDE ESL/ADULT EDUCATION SERVICE CENTER
ILLINOIS ADULT INDOCHINESE REFUGEE CONSORTIUM: INDOCHINA PROFESSIONAL TEACHER TRAINING CENTER
500 South Dwyer Avenue Arlington Heights, Illinois 60005 (312)870-4157/61

HANDOUTS ON REQUEST 1980-81

An annotated list of resources for
professions working with limited English proficiency adults

The Handouts on Request list includes many articles and handouts important and useful to teachers, administrators and others serving limited English proficiency adults. The Handouts came from many sources, some were prepared and written by professional staff; some are reprints from professional journals; others were written and prepared by ESL/adult education teachers. All are especially selected for their value to adult educators working with LEP immigrants, citizens, and refugees.

INDEX

I. The Nature of ESL in Adult Education
II. ESL/AE Program Administration
III. Methodology and Approaches in ESL
IV. Techniques and Classroom Procedures
V. ESL Literacy: A Special Problem
VI. Individualizing and the Multi-Level Class
VII. Life-Coping Skills
VIII. Materials Selection and Adaptation
IV. Curriculum and Lesson Development
X. Tests and Testing
XI. Understanding Culture
XII. Bilingual Adult Education
XIII. Counseling the LEP Adult
XIV. Vocational ESL and Vocational Training for LEP
XV. Employment Services
XVI. Indochinese Languages, Culture and Peoples
XVII. Professional Growth and Professional Concerns in ESL/AE
XVIII. Staff Development and In-Service Training
XIX. Miscellaneous Lists and Bibliographies

All are available upon request from the above address at the cost of duplication.

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Elements in a Lesson: Beginning

The following is a summary of elements in a beginning level ESL class that meets three hours daily. It was written by a group of teachers to suggest the pacing and variety they feel is effective in their beginning level classes.

9:00 - 9:15 Warm-Up
May include content such as greetings, current conversational topics, or the weather; or techniques such as personal exchanges and TPR (Total Physical Response)

9:15 - 9:30 Review of Previous Day's Lesson

9:30 - 10:00 New Lesson: Presentation, Listening and Oral Practice
a) vocabulary (introduced with aids such as visuals, filmstrip, realia, overhead transparencies)
b) dialogue (oral)
c) drills
d) controlled conversation
e) Paired practices/role playing or free conversation.

10:00 - 10:15 Pronunciation

10:15 - 10:30 Relief Activity (related to new lesson)
(e.g., song, game, jazz chant, TPR)

10:30 - 10:45 Coffee Break (encourage unrestricted conversation)

10:45 - 11:00 Rapid Review of New Lesson

11:00 - 11:20 Reading Based on New Lesson Material
Reading may be "survival" such as signs and labels, it may be language experience (sentences, dialogues, paragraphs) or it may be a short paragraph. Follow-up activities (e.g., sequencing, supplying words for a visual)

11:20 - 11:35 Writing Based on Previously Learned Material
(e.g., supplying words for visuals, answering questions, dictation, sequencing)

11:35 - 11:50 Review of Previously Taught Material

11:50 - 12:00 Closing Activity

Approximately 80% of the time is spent on Listening and Speaking activities.
Approximately 20% of the time is spent on Reading and Writing activities.

Materials:

1. Modulearn - les. 10
2. Modulearn - les. 29
3. Modulearn,VI - les. 17
4. Lists of numbers
   Pictures of money

LESSON PLAN FOR MULTI-LEVEL CLASS

Together

Various classroom objects.
"Write a sentence about _____."

Group One (Modulearn L. 10)	Group Two (Modulearn L. 29)	Group Three (Modulearn, VI L. 17)
STUDENT-STUDENT Information-Sharing -Pairs of students One student dictates numbers. The other student writes. One student asks amounts of money found in pictures. Other student responds.	INSTRUCTOR -Vocabulary - models of cars -Dialog: Ken: That's a goodlooking sports car. Ann: Thank you. We bought it last week. Ken: Where's your old car? Ann: We traded it in. Vary dialog.	INDIVIDUAL Students read 17-C and write Part A.
INSTRUCTOR -Teach names of family members. -Q/A drill: Who's Joe? He's the brother. -Review visuals showing location.	STUDENT-STUDENT Interview/Report -Pairs of students Students find color, age, type, place purchased, and size of personal cars	STUDENT-STUDENT Listing -Students list kinds of transportation Interview/Report -Pairs of students Students compare transportation in Chicago with trans. in home country
INDIVIDUAL -Students write exercises on pages 4 & 8.	INDIVIDUAL - Students write exercises on pages 3 & 4.	INSTRUCTOR -Part A - L/C Exercise. -Part B - grammar

© by Linda G. Mrowicki, Arlington Heights, Ill. Feb. 1979

SAMPLE AGENDA

ESL WORKSHOP

for

Florida International University - Center for Latino Education

by the

Center for Applied Linguistics

November 19 & 20, 1981

Miami, Florida

AGENDA

Thursday Afternoon--Haitian Teachers

1:00 - 1:20 I. Introductions

1:20 -2:50 II. Teaching English Literacy

A. Transition from Native Language Literacy to Second Language Literacy)Haitian Creole to English Literacy)

B. Principles of ESL Literacy

C. ESL Literacy within Total Curriculum

D. Videotape Demonstration - Jack Wigfield on Teaching Literacy

E. Discussion

2:50 - 3:00 Break

3:00 - 4:30 III. Overview of ESL Lession Activities

A. Lesson Plan

B. Types of Class Activities

1. Establish Meaning

2. Practice

3. Application/Communication Activities

C. Pacing Lesson Time

SAMPLE AGENDA

Personalizing Life Skills ESL Programs

Presenter: Autumn Keltner

Overview of Workshop Content

I. Introductions

II. Personalizing Life Skills - What Does It Mean to You?
Brainstorming re participants' expectations

III. Open-end Questions - Discussion and Demonstration
(See attached list)
Materials: Needs Assessment transparencies
Course Outline transparencies
Elements in a Lesson handout from ACSA Core Workshop Manual
Paired Activities handouts
Sample Textbooks
ACSA Core Workshop Manual

IV. Group Task
Handout: CASAS Competency statements in Health and Community Resources
A. Participants in small groups sequence competencies in order for beginning, intermediate, and advanced ESL students.
B. Participants list enabling objectives as needed for beginning level students.
C. Discussion/Feedback re above tasks.
D. Discussion of strategies for developing and adapting same competency statement for different levels of instruction including activities and assessment.

V. Overview California Adult Student Assessment System
A. Discussion/Demonstration
Handout: CASAS Adult Life Skills Sample Items Packet
B. Discussion/Demonstration
CASAS Aural Comprehension Component for ESL students
Materials: Overview of proposed test transparency
Sample test items transparencies

VI. Step by Step Development of Specific Lesson Plan
Handouts: Lesson Plan
Paired Activities

VII. Wrap Up

Strategy SELF-ASSESSMENT OF MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION SKILLS *

OBJECTIVE

To assess the level of competence in skills relevant to working in multicultural education prior to a cross-cultural education program (or a program including cross-cultural training techniques) and to evaluate changes in those skills at the close of the program.

PARTICIPANTS

Used by individuals in the group. May or may not be shared with others.

MATERIALS

Assessment instrument and gummed tabs with words or phrases typed on.

SETTING

No special requirements.

TIME

Twenty minutes. Discussion time if desired by any of the participants.

PROCEDURE

At the outset of a course, students are asked to place on a continuum adhesive tabs upon which are printed skills or attitudes which it is important for the student to have when working in the field of multicultural education. When given the tabs, participants are asked to place each on the continuum according to their personal assessment of their skills. Words which they do not recognize or understand should be placed on the lines under "I have no knowledge or understanding of the following."

Participants may wish to discuss their profiles with others in the group for feedback purposes. If so, time should be allotted for this discussion.

At the conclusion of the course, each student is asked to repeat the self-assessment exercise, using a second profile sheet. This provides a check on the degree to which the student feels he or she has progressed during the course.

One word or phrase is placed on each tab. The terms that are used may be selected from the list that follows or may include others that have been chosen to meet the defined objectives of a program or course. Students may want to preceed (mentally) each term with phrases such as "I can..." or "I am skilled in..." or "I possess..." (whichever is appropriate) for clarity. Terms that may be used include:

self awareness	openness
respect for other cultures	adaptability
withholding judgment	tolerance
perception checking	cross-cultural analysis
overcoming prejudice	comfortable with difference
non-verbal communication	awareness of stereotyping
bicultural	feeling of self-worth
acceptance of diversity	acceptance of cultural pluralism
affirmation of own culture	self-knowledge

non-evaluative feedback

Tabs are placed on the self-assessment instrument according to the person's degree of strength or weakness in each area. This is a personal assessment and need not be discussed or revealed to anyone if the individual prefers to keep it private. The important thing is that the individual be honest with him- or herself.

In some cases, increased understanding of a particular set of concepts in intercultural communication or the experiences in an educational program can result in an individual "lowering" his or her assessment at the close of the course. This should not be viewed with dismay. It may be an indication of new insights and awareness. Those terms that appeared under "I have no knowledge or understanding of the following" should, however, be clarified during the course of the program.

Source: Adapted from a "Self-assessment of Leadership Skills" instrument developed by Lowell Ingram, University of Washington.

* Developed by Rob Proudfoot, Oregon State University

Strategy

RANK ORDERING VALUES*

OBJECTIVES

To explore cross-cultural perceptions of one's own values and the values of other culture groups.

PARTICIPANTS

Any number.

MATERIALS

Rank ordering chart, chalkboard or newsprint.

SETTING

No special requirements.

TIME

One hour.

PROCEDURE

Using the "Value Rank Ordering Chart," ask each student to rank order the values as follows:

List the three most important and the three least important values for:

a. Your own culture,

b. Mainstream American culture (if different),

c. One other culture represented in the group.

Divide into subgroups that are either culturally homogeneous, culturally heterogeneous or organized according to other criteria such as job status, sex, etc.

Instruct the groups to rank order the values for the entire group and produce a list which they can agree reflects those values that are most important and least important for the total group. It may not be possible for them to arrive at a consensus.

Bring the full group together to discuss the results.

Discussion:

Were the groups able to arrive at a consensus? If not, why not?

How were the values rank ordered by individuals and/or by the groups? (Record these responses on the board so everyone can see them.)

Was there agreement among participants who are from the same culture groups?

What other factors influenced their value selection, i.e., personal interests, working conditions, sex, etc.

While discussing the reasons for participants' selections, look for biases (cultural or other) that are being subtly expressed and gently point them out within the context of the discussion.

Source: Intercultural Communication Workshop Program of the Intercultural Network, Inc.

*Developed by Rob Proudfoot, Oregon State University

EXAMPLES OF OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONS

1. The major reason the majority of students in my class are studying English is . . .

2. The instructional materials I use most often are . . .

3. The way(s) I assess the progress my students are making toward their objectives is (are) . . .

4. The problem I most often face in meeting the needs of my students is . . .

5. I feel most successful when . . .

EXAMPLES OF OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONS

1. The major goal in adult ESL is for the student to be able to....

2. The major reason the majority of students in my class are studying English is.....

3. I need to know about the cultural backgrounds of my students in order to.....

4. The purpose of a course outline is.....

5. The purpose of a lesson plan is.....

6. The instructional materials I use most often are.....

7. The supplemental instructional materials I use most often are.....

8. The way(s) I assess the progress my students are making toward their objectives are.....

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WORKSHOP EVALUATION
September 1981

DIRECTIONS FOR RESPONDING:

Please circle the number which best expresses your reaction to each of the seven feedback criteria.

EXAMPLE: The weather was:
excellent 6 5 4 3 2 1 poor

PRESENTER:

1. The organization of the workshop was:
excellent 6 5 4 3 2 1 poor

2. The objectives of the workshop were:
clearly evident 6 5 4 3 2 1 vague

3. The work of the consultant(s) was:
excellent 6 5 4 3 2 1 poor

4. The ideas and activities presented were:
very interesting 6 5 4 3 2 1 dull

5. The scope (coverage) was:
very adequate 6 5 4 3 2 1 inadequate

6. My attendance at this workshop should prove:
very beneficial 6 5 4 3 2 1 no benefit

7. Overall, I consider this workshop:
excellent 6 5 4 3 2 1 poor

In order to assist us in collecting and collating data, please circle the appropriate category for the next five responses concerning your own background:

POSITION: ___ESL Teacher ___ESL Administrator ___Other_____

EDUCATION: Highest degree: ___Associate ___B.A. ___M.S. ___Other_____

This degree/training was in the field of_____

ESL Training: ___Inservice workshop(s) ___B.A. ___M.A. ___None ___Other_____

ADULT ESL TEACHING EXPERIENCE: Number of years ____(specify)_____

OTHER TEACHING EXPERIENCE: Number of years _____(specify)_____

OPTIONAL:

The stronger features were (please try to avoid answering "none"):

_____

_____

_____

The weaker features were (please try to avoid ansering "none"):

_____

_____

_____

Suggestions for future activities:

_____

_____

_____

COMMENTS:

_____

_____

_____

THANK YOU FOR YOUR RESPONSE

ESL/AE/CI-8d
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Cantonese

Cantonese is one form (or "dialect") of Chinese. It is spoken in Southeast China and has been taken by immigrants to Southeast Asia (especially Vietnam and Cambodia) and to many Western countries. It is the principal language of Hong Kong and Macao.

The term "dialect" has been the traditional term used to refer to the different forms of Chinese. In point of fact, the different "dialects" of Chinese are really different languages since most of these "dialects" are not mutually intelligible.

WRITING SYSTEM

Cantonese is written in the traditional Chinese system which is ideographic in nature. This means that each separate word in the language has a separate written symbol. All Chinese "dialects" are written in the same system. Since the written system does not reflect the sound system directly, the same written system is used, regardless of dialect involved. This means that the same graphic system is used for both Cantonese and Mandarin. While the written system is identical, the way the written form is read out loud will depend on what dialect is involved. In other words, the same printed page will suffice for both Cantonese and Mandarin (the form of Chinese spoken in Northern China); although as spoken languages, Cantonese and Mandarin are not mutually intelligible. Relying on the same written form has obscured the considerable difference between the Chinese dialects. It is not clear to what degree reading skills in Chinese will transfer to English. Note that Arabic numerals are in use for certain purposes. Written Chinese is traditionally written from top-to-bottom, left-to-right.

ENGLISH SOUNDS

Probably one of the greatest difficulties facing the Cantonese-speaker learning English is the English system of sounds. Not only do fewer distinctive sounds occur in Cantonese as compared to English, but there is severe restriction on where these sounds may occur in the Cantonese word. As a consequence, great attention must be given to pronunciation problems, although not at the exclusion of other grammatical issues facing the Cantonese-speaker learning English.

1. English /b/, /d/, and /g/ are pronounced with voicing; Cantonese /b/, /d/ and /g/ are pronounced voiceless. Consequently, English /b/, /d/, and /g/ may be produced as voiceless and perceived by the English-speaker as /p/, /t/ and /k/.

2. Cantonese has word-final /p/, /t/, and /k/. These generally occur in Cantonese unaspirated and unreleased. As a result, it can be expected that English word-final /p/, /t/, and /k/ will be pronounced unreleased and unaspirated. These sounds so produced in English will be difficult to interpret by an English-speaker who may not be able to distinguish aurally between the various final stops if not released. Words such as cap, cat, cake, represent potential problems for the Cantonese-speaker if the final consonants are not pronounced distinctly.

3. Cantonese /b/, /d/, and /g/ do not occur word-final. This means that the Cantonese-speaker will not hear the difference between English /p/ and /b/, /t/ and /d/, and /k/ and /g/ in word-final positions:

   tap/tab bat/bad back/bag

4. In general, Cantonese words can end in /p/, /t/, /k/, /m/, /n/, or /ng/. Since English has additonal word-final consonants, this means that all words ending in a consonant other than /m/, /n/, and /ng/ will represent considerable problems for the Cantonese-speaker learning English.

5. Cantonese does not distinguish between /r/ and /l/ (/l/ does occur in word-initial position). Consequently, all contrasts between /r/ and /l/ are a source of difficulty for the Cantonese-speaker learning English.

6. Cantonese lacks the following sounds found in English:

   /v/ as in Vicks (may be confused with English /w/)
   /θ/ as in thick (may be confused with English /t/)
   /ð/ as in they (may be confused with English /d/)
   /z/ as in zoo (may be confused with English /s/)
   /sh/ as in she (may be confused with English /s/)
   /zh/ as in pleasure (may be confused with English /s/)

7. Cantonese lacks initial consonantal clusters (such as class, street, etc.). Thus, all initial clusters represent a potential problem for the Cantonese-speaker.

8. Cantonese lacks word-final consonantal clusters (such as ask, fifth, etc.). This implies that all word-final consonantal clusters will represent problems for the Cantonese-speaker learning English.

9. Most Cantonese words are either one syllable or two syllables in length. English words may contain far more than two syllables. This represents problems for the Cantonese-speaker learning English since stress patterns tend to be characteristic of individual words (that is, the position of the stressed syllable has to be learned for each word---there are patterns of stress in English, but these are complex). English can have several degrees of stress within one word: elevator-operator. The appropriate positioning of stress within an English word or expression is crucial. Note the difference between export (noun) and export (verb). Distinctions of this type are not found in Cantonese. Special attention will have to be given to the correct positioning of stress in English.

10. English has a considerable number of internal consonantal clusters (clusters occurring within the word): textbook, bathtub, icecream, costly, fifthieth, etc. Cantonese lacks such clusters and, thus, all represent a potential problem in the learning of English.

11. Since Cantonese has a complex system of vowels, the vowel system of English represents far fewer problems in learning English than do the consonants. Among the vowel contrasts that will be a source of problems for the English learner are:

    a) /æ/ - /ə/: as in bat/but. Cantonese has a vowel that is produced about midway between the two English vowels.

    b) /ɔ/ - /ow/: as in bought/boat. Although Cantonese has vowel sounds similar to these two sounds in English, these vowel sounds are not distinguished---which of the two vowel sounds occurs depending on where in the word the vowel occurs. Cantonese-speakers will have a difficult time hearing the difference between words containing the /ɔ/ - /ow/ distinction in English.

    c) /i/ - /iy/: as in bit/beat. Cantonese has sounds similar to the English vowels /i/ and /iy/. However in Cantonese there is a tendency to have one of these vowels occur before certain consonants, while the other occurs at the end of words. This lack of functional distinction in Cantonese will make it difficult for the Cantonese-speaker to hear the difference between English /i/ and /iy/.

    d) /u/ - /uw/: as in put/boot. Cantonese does not have this vocalic distinction.

Hence, the English distinction will be a problem. Given the relatively low frequency of this contrast in English, this will not constitute a major problem.

e) Cantonese vowels are nasalized after a nasal sound (like /n/, /m/, /ng/). English vowels are generally not nasalized after nasal sounds. Hence, English NO will be pronounced with a nasalized vowel. This is a relatively minor problem.

SYNTAX

1. A striking difference between English and Cantonese is that in English the shape of a word may undergo change: I-ME-MY-MINE, SEE-SAW-SEES-SEEN, PHOTOGRAPHY-PHOTOGRAPH, etc. In Cantonese, the shape of the word is invariant. This implies that the inflectional morphology will be a source of problems (particularly with suffixes such as -s, -s (genitive), -ed (tense), -s (tense) -ing, etc.).

2. Since Cantonese words do not change shape, it can be expected that Cantonese will lack subject-verb concord: I SPEAK ENGLISH/HE SPEAKS ENGLISH. This will be a source of considerable problems for the Cantonese-speaker learning English.

3. Cantonese lacks the singular-plural distinction. Hence, the obligatory marking of plurality in English will be a source of problems for the Cantonese-speaker.

4. Cantonese does not have the type of grammatical gender distinction corresponding to English SHE/HE/IT. Hence, pronominal distinctions in English will be a serious problem for the Cantonese-speaker. Note that the Cantonese-speaker not only will have to learn the difference between HE/SHE/IT in English, but will also have to learn that these pronouns take different shapes, depending on their use in the sentence: HIS/HER/ITS, HIM/HER/IT, HE/SHE/IT.

5. Negation in Cantonese is indicated by placing the negative particle *m̀h* before the verb. Negation in English is quite complex (compared to Cantonese), since in English the negative particle NOT sometimes occurs before the verb, other times after the verb:

I smoke.	I do not smoke.
I can swim.	I can not swim.
I am home.	I am not home.

Negation will be a problem for the Cantonese-speaker learning English.

6. Yes-no questions in Cantonese are constructed by coupling the negative and positive forms for the verb together, plus the placement of a particle. English question formation is quite complex. Hence, it can be expected that question formation (of the yes-no type) will be a serious problem for the Cantonese-speaker learning English.

7. Wh-questions (those requiring information words such as WHO, WHOM, WHERE, etc.) in Cantonese require the question word to be placed at the end of the sentence. In English such question words occur at the beginning of the sentence. Hence, wh-questions will be a serious problem for the Cantonese-speaker learning English. The problem is further made more difficult by the change of the sentence that may be needed (in addition to the placing of the wh-word):

What does John do?
Who is John?
What does John have?

The elements in a Cantonese sentence are not switched about in the formation of a wh-question. The English wh-question formation is quite complex and difficult to learn at first.

8. Subject pronouns are frequently omitted in Cantonese. In English subject pronouns are generally obligatory. Hence, the tendency to omit the subject pronoun may be carried over into English. This will require practice on the part of the Cantonese-speaker.

9. Forms corresponding to the verb TO BE in English are often omitted in Cantonese. English rarely omits any form of the verb TO BE. Hence, the obligatory presence of TO BE in English will be a source of problems for the learner of English who speaks Cantonese.

10. While Cantonese has particle constructions that correspond to the English definite article (THE), more often definiteness is indicated in Cantonese by very different means (by reference to the topic-comment distinction). This implies that English articles (THE, A(N), SOME, ANY) will be quite difficult to master. The tendency will be to omit the definite article, in particular. This is due to the fact that in Cantonese the structure of the sentence indicates definiteness, not a specific word corresponding to the English THE. The article will require extensive practice for the Cantonese-speaker.

Dari (Afghan Persian)

Dari is the form of Persian spoken in Afghanistan. Although it shares many characteristics with Farsi (the Persian spoken in Iran), there are considerable differences between these two forms of Persian. Dari is one of two official languages of Afghanistan (the other being Pushto). Educated Afghans generally speak Dari.

Dari, along with Farsi and Tadjik, form an important branch of the Indo-Iranian language family. These languages are distantly related to English since both Indo-Iranian and English belong to the Indo-European family of languages. However, the relationship between English and Dari is too distant to be of much practical use for the Dari-speaker learning English. Dari, Farsi and Tadjik are often referred to as "Persian."

ORTHOGRAPHY

Dari is written in a modified version of the Arabic alphabet. This alphabet is written from right-to-left. We should note that many of the Dari vowels are not represented in the writing system. Punctuation signs are generally not used in written Dari either. Consequently, learning to read (and write) English will constitute a major problem for the Dari-speaker learning English. Note also that despite the fact that the numbers in English and Dari both derive from a common source (namely, Arabic), the numbers are written very differently and require some initial attention.

VOWELS

Dari has eight vowels. In general, Dari-speakers will find few problems in learning English vowels, with the exceptions noted below.

1. Distinguishing between English /i/ and /e/ (as in bit and bet, respectively) will prove a major problem. This is due to the fact that the Dari vowel /e/ is produced midway between the positions for English /i/ and /e/.
2. Dari has one low vowel (/a/), while English has three low vowels (/a/,/æ/ and /ɔ/). Thus, distinguishing among sets of words such as cat, cot, and caught will be a particular problem.
3. English /ɔ/ and /o/ (as in caught, and coat, respectively) represent a problem since Dari lacks a sound equivalent to English /ɔ/.

CONSONANTS

Most English consonants, with the exceptions noted below, have equivalents in Dari so that few problems will be encountered with consonants. The major exceptions are:

1. English /θ/ and /ð/ have no equivalents in Dari. The Dari-speaker will tend to substitute /t/ and /d/ for English /θ/ (as in thick) and /ð/ (as in their).
2. English /v/ may be a problem for some Dari-speakers since this sound occurs rarely if at all in the speech of most Dari-speakers. There will be a tendency to confuse /v/ with the English /w/. Thus, English vine is apt to be pronounced as wine.
3. Dari does not distinguish /ŋ/ from /n/ (the sound /ŋ/ occurs as a variant of /n/ before sounds such as /k/ and /g/ in Dari). Thus, the Dari-speaker will not readily distinguish between English sing and sin.
4. English /r/ is produced very differently from Dari /r/, Dari /r/ is a trill,

similar to Spanish /rr/. This does not consitute a major problem but attention should be paid to the pronunciation of English /r/.

SYNTACTIC CONSIDERATIONS

1. Subject pronouns are optional in Dari. In English they are always obligatory. Hence, the Dari-speaker learning English will tend to omit the subject pronoun in English (this is especially true of the subject pronoun IT).

2. Gender is not indicated in Dari. The subject pronoun û is equivalent to English HE/SHE/IT. The three-way distinction found in English third-person pronouns in the singular will consitute a major area of difficulty for the Dari speaker learning English.

3. In Dari, nouns occur in the singular after numbers:

mêz	*mêza*	*yag mêz*	*du mêz*
TABLE	TABLES	ONE TABLE	TWO TABLE (= two tables)

   Thus, one can expect this grammatical rule in Dari to be carried over into English producing such items as TWO TABLE and FIVE BOOK.

4. The most frequent position for the verb in the Dari sentence is at the end. English tends to favor subject-verb-object sequences, while Dari favors subject-object-verb. This will present serious problems for the beginning student of English who speaks Dari.

5. Negation in Dari is made by prefixing the negative particle *n(a)* to the verb. English has a complex system for indicating negation. It can be assumed that the English system will constitute a serious problem for the Dari-speaker.

6. Yes-no questions in Dari are made by raising the voice; the elements in the sentence are not otherwise changed. This differs greatly from English where yes-no question formation is quite complicated. This will require special attention.

7. Note that in Dari the negative prefix receives stress. In English, the negative particle NOT is generally not stressed, except in contrastive situations.

8. Wh-questions in Dari involve placing the wh-word before the verb. In English, the wh-word occurs at the beginning of the sentence.

   dôkân kujâ-s

   SHOP WHERE IS = where is the shop?

9. Dari equivalents to the English verb BE occur as suffixes and are generally placed at the end of the sentence. Thus, the Dari-speaker faces two major problems: English BE is an independent verb (not a suffix as in Dari), and English BE can occur at the beginning of the sentence, whereas in Dari the equivalent occurs as a suffix at the end of the sentence.

10. Adjectives in Dari are placed after the noun, with a linking paricle between the noun and adjective:

    shâr-e-kalân

    CITY-particle-LARGE = large city

    The Dari-speaker will tend to place the adjective after the noun in English.

11. Definiteness is marked by a suffix only in object position. This means that Dari lacks an equivalent to the article THE when this article occurs with subject nouns. As a consequence, article usage in subject position will be a particular problem.

Rumanian/Moldavian

Rumanian is a Romance language most closely related to Italian, but having much in common with the other Romance languages such as French and Spanish. Rumanian has borrowed extensively from neighboring languages so that its basic vocabulary is heavily influenced by the presence of Slavic, Turkish, and Greek borrowings. The majority of Rumanian-speakers live in Rumania, although a number of Rumanian-speakers also live in the Soviet Union in the Moldavian Socialist Soviet Republic. The variety of Rumanian spoken in Moldavia is called Moldavian. The main difference between Rumanian and Moldavian resides in (1) a difference in alphabets used--- Rumanian is written in the Latin alphabet, Moldavian in the Cyrillic; (2) Moldavian has borrowed extensive technical vocabulary items from Modern Russian, while Rumanian has tended to borrow technical items from French or Italian. Rumanian and Moldavian should be regarded as varieties of the same language.

Since both Rumanian and English share many words in common (due to the presence of Latin-origin words in both languages), there will be many similarities between English vocabulary and, to a limited extent, pronunciation that will make the learning of English easier as compared to the task facing speakers of languages from Southeast Asia or the Middle East.

WRITING SYSTEM

Since Rumanian is written in the Roman alphabet, the reading skills of Rumanian-speakers will transfer to English quite readily. Moldavian-speakers will have to learn to adapt to a different alphabet, but the reading skills of the Moldavian-speaker will also transfer to English with out difficulty. Keep in mind that the writing systems for both Rumanian and Moldavian are quite systematic and have few of the irregularities found in the English writing system. The irregularities found in English will be a source of problems for the Rumanina- or Moldavian-speaker learning English.

ENGLISH SOUNDS

Most consonants in English are also found in Rumanian. Word-initial and word-final consonant clusters will not be a particular problem for the Rumanian-speaker. Among the English consonants that present a particular problem for the learner of English are the following:

1. English /θ/ (as in thick) is a problem since it will be confused with either English /s/ or /t/: thick may be heard and pronounced as sick or tick. This is due to the fact that /θ/ does not occure in Rumanian.

2. English /ð/ (as in they) does not occur in Rumanian. Hence, English /ð/ may be heard and pronounced as either /d/ or /z/: they may be confused with day and "zay."

3. English /ng/ (as in sing occurs in Rumanian only as a variant of /n/ before /k/ or /g/. This implies that the Rumanian will not distinguish between sun and sung. Most Rumanian-speakers will lack a /ng/ at the end of a word.

4. English /l/ has a "dark" pronunciation whenever it occurs at the end of a word (or syllable). The Rumanian-speaker will tend to either not hear it at all or confuse it with /w/. This means that words such as bell, bill, bull, ball, etc., will be difficult to pronounce because of the final /l/.

5. English /p/, /t/, and /k/ as in pea, tea, and key are aspirated whenever these sounds precede a stressed syllable. Rumanian /p/, /t/, and /k/ are generally pronounced without aspiration. Aspiration refers to the small puff of air associated with these sounds in English. The lack of aspiration when required in English may result in these sounds being interpreted as /b/, /d/ and /g/.

SYNTAX

1. The definite article in Rumanian is a suffix that follows the noun:

   profesor-ul PROFESOR-THE = the profesor

   The indefinite article in Rumanian occurs before the noun as a separate word (as in English). The position of the definite article in English will represent a new pattern for the Rumanian-speaker learning English.

2. The definite article does not occur after a preposition in Rumanian. This means that errors of the following type may be expected:

   AN APPLE UNDER TABLE = an apple under the table
   A BOOK ON TABLE = a book on the table

3. While adjectives in Rumanian may precede the noun they modify as in English, a more common pattern is to have the adjective follow the noun modified. This is a new pattern for the Rumanian-speaker that will require attention.

4. Subject pronouns in the first- and second-persons (corresponding to I, YOU, WE) are not obligatory in Rumanian. In English all subject pronouns are generally obligatory. This means that the Rumanian-speaker learning English will have to learn not to omit such subject pronouns in English.

5. Third person pronouns when these refer to non-human nouns (i.e., the names of things and animals) generally do not occur in Rumanian---the noun referring to animals or things being either repeated or omitted. In particular, all constructions involving IT as subject in English are of particular difficulty for the Ruamnian-speaker learning English.

6. The indefinite article does not occur in sentences where a noun occurs across the copula (where the copula is equivalent to English BE):

   Eu sînt student. I AM STUDENT. (for English: I am a student)

7. Rumanian negates a verb by placing the negative particle, *nu*, before the verb.

   Eu nu sînt student. = I am not a student.

   Negation in English is very complex. The negative particle, NOT, sometimes may occur before the verb (with the obligatory occurrence of DO): I DO NOT SMOKE. At other times the negative particle occurs after such verb-like items as the auxiliaries and modals: I AM NOT A STUDENT; I HAVE NOT BEEN A STUDENT. The various ways of constructing negative sentences in English will be a very difficult task for the Ruamnian-speaker learning English.

8. English has relatively fixed word-order. Most English sentences tend to be subject-verb-object. Rumanian has what is called "scrambling rules." This means that the word-order in Rumanian is often rearranged for stylistic reasons or for stressing one element versus another:

   O chifla iau. A ROLL I'LL HAVE = I'll have a roll.
   Iau si eu unu. I'LL HAVE ALSO I ONE = I'll also have one.

   Note that the Rumanian examples could also occur as:

   Iau o chifla. I'LL HAVE A ROLL.
   Si eu iau unu. I'LL ALSO HAVE ONE.

   The fixed word-order found in English will be a source of difficulty for the Rumanian-speaker learning English.

9. Yes-no questions in Rumanian can be formed either by inverting the subject and verb or by simply producing the declarative version of the sentence with

rising intonation. Question-formation represents a considerable challenge in English for the Rumanian-speaker.

10. The present tense in Rumanian corresponds to English present progressive, emphatic present, simple present, and immediate future:

(eu) învăț	I AM LEARNING
	I DO LEARN
	I LEARN
	I'LL LEARN/I AM GOING TO LEARN

The English tense is more complex than the Rumanian. This means that the Rumanian-speaker will have difficulty with the forms of the present tense in English.

11. Note that in Rumanian possession is marked by a combination of noun + definite article suffix + possessive pronoun:

profesor-ul meu PROFESSOR - THE MY = my professor

The order of the English equivalent of the Rumanian possessive is approximately the opposite. This will constitute a major difficulty in English grammar for the Rumanian-speaker.

12. Rumanian has a passive structure parallel to that found in English. However, the passive structure in Rumanian occurs very infrequently (especially in the spoken language). Passive structures in English will represent a difficult syntactic pattern for the Rumanian-speaker to master.

Polish

Approximately 35,000,000 people speak Polish---mostly in Poland and adjacent areas of the U.S.S.R. Polish is written in a form of the Roman alphabet. Given the high levels of literacy in Poland, it can be expected that most Polish-speakers will be literate.

The Polish alphabet is highly consistant and represents the sounds of the Polish language fairly well. Some of the letters in the Polish alphabet have values that are quite close to the values that corresponding letters have in the Enlgish alphabet. The following letters have similar pronunciation in both languages: f, k, m, n, p, s, t, v, x, y; The following letters are pronounced similarly in both languages in other than word-final position: b, d, l, z; g is pronounced as the g in girl; h, and r are pronounced differently in Polish, but generally recognizably to an English-speaker. However, some of the letters and combinations of letters in Polish have very different values from those expected by an English-speaker:

w	(v)	ł	(w)	j	(y)
c	(ts)	sz	(sh)	rz	(zh) as in pleasure
ż	(zh)	ch	(h)	ch	(ch)
dż	(j)	ń	(ni) as in onion		

In general, reading skills in Polish will transfer readily to English.

ENGLISH SOUNDS

English consonants will not present a major problem to the Polish-speaker learning English. The major problem will be the presence of voiced consonants at the end of words in English---in Polish, only voiceless stops and fricatives occur (these are discussed below). Other potential problems are described as follows:

1. In Polish, stress occurs on the next-to-last syllable in a word with two or more syllables. In English, stress can occur on any syllable, although stress in fixed for each individual word. Thus, differences such as, export (noun) and export (verb) will represent something new for the Polish-speaker learning English.

2. The following consonants have no equivalents in Polish; these will constitute a particular problem for the Polish-speaker:

   a) /θ/ as in thick; Polish-speakers will tend to substitute /t/ or /s/.

   b) /ð/ as in they; Polish-speakers will tend to substitute /d/ or /z/.

   c) /ng/ as in sing; Polish-speakers will tend to substitute /nk/.

   d) /l/ as in bell; the so-called dark 'l' does not occur in Polish; Polish-speakers will substitute a clear 'l' (similar to the /l/ in late); the main problem is that Polish-speakers will tend not to hear the dark 'l' or else perceive it as some form of /w/.

3. The Polish voiceless stops /p/, /t/, and /k/ are pronounced without aspiration (that is, the small puff of air that accompanies these sounds in English before a stressed vowel; compare the two 'p's in paper---the first one is produced with aspiration in English, the second without aspiration). English-speakers tend to interpret un-aspirated voiceless stops as voiced---that is, if the first 'p' is not aspirated in paper, the word will sound like 'baper' to an English-speaker.

3. In Polish, no voiced stops and fricatives (sounds like /b/, /d/, /g/ and /v/, /z/) occur at the end of words. This means that English words such as: rib will be pronounced as rip
red ret
rag rack
save safe
eyes ice

4. Polish does not allow combinations of consonants that are voiced and voiceless---combinations of consonants in Polish are either all voiced or all voiceless. This means that English consonant clusters such as beds (bedz) will be pronounced as (bets) (the final consonant has to be voiceless since Polish does not allow voiced fricatives in word-final position; in turn, the consonant before a voiceless sound has to be voiceless also). This means that the inflectional suffixes such as -(e)s for plurality or for the contracted form of is, as well as for the sign of the third person present tense marker, and -ed as the sign of past tense, will all be pronunciation problems when these are fully voiced as in:

beads	pronounced as	beats
ribs		rips
Bob's		Bop's
raids		rates
tags		tacks
lived		lift
buzzed		bussed

The English vowel-system will be difficult for the Polish-speaker since Polish has eight distinct vowels, of which three have no counterparts in English. The remaining five vowels are similar to those found in languages such as Spanish and Italian. A further complication is that Polish lacks diphthongs---English has a complex system of diphthongs.

5. English /i/ and /iy/ (as in bit, and beat, respectively) represents a difficult contrast for the Polish-speaker since Polish has only one vowel corresponding to two vowels in English. The Polish-speaker will not be able to distinguish between such pairs as sit/seat, bid/bead, etc.

6. English /e/ and /æ/ (as in bet and bat, respectively) are a problem since Polish lacks this distinction. Hence, pairs such as bed/bad, met/mat will be a source of difficulty.

7. English /a/ and /ə/ (as in cot and cut, respectively).

8. English /ow/ and /ɔ/ (as in coat and caught, respectively).

9. English /a/ and /ɔ/ (as in cot and caught, respectively).

10. English /a/ and /æ/ (as in cot and cat, respectively).

11. English /e/ and /ə/ (as in bet and but, respectively).

SYNTAX

1. Polish allows subject pronouns to be eliminated; English requires subject pronouns: *On wyjechał z Poznania.* = *Wyjechał z Poznania.*

HE LEFT POZNAN (HE) LEFT POZNAN

This implies that Polish-speakers learning English will tend to omit the subject pronouns in English: *Left Poznan.

2. Polish has certain "subjectless" verbs---such verbs generally requiring IT as subject in English. It can be expected that the subject IT will

tend to be omitted:

Padało wczoraj.	(IT) RAINED YESTERDAY.
Było ciemno.	(IT) WAS DARK.
Jest nam zimno.	(IT) IS (TO US) COLD. = We are cold.

3. English has relatively fixed word-order; Polish has "scrambling" rules. Polish allows the rearrangement of words for stylistic reasons as well as for other syntactic reasons (indication of definiteness, etc.):

Janek dał książkę swojej matce.	John gave the book to his mother.
Książkę dał Janek swojej matce.	
Janek dał swojej matce książkę.	
Swojej matce Janek dał książkę.	

The fixed-word order in English will represent a problem for the Polish-speaker learning English.

4. The Polish present tense forms correspond to English simple present tense as well as the present progressive form:

Ja czytam.	I AM READING/I READ.

The English progressive forms will be a particular problem for the Polish-speaking student.

5. English question-formation is a problem for the Polish-speaker since Polish forms yes-no questions by placing an interrogative particle at the beginning of the sentence, but the rest of the sentence is similar to the declarative form (the interrogative particle is often omitted, intonation signals a question in such an event):

Zamykacie okna.	YOU ARE CLOSING THE WINDOWS.
Czy zambykacie okna.	ARE YOU CLOSING THE WINDOWS.

Inversion of subject and verb does occur in Polish yes-no questions if the interrogative particle is omitted and the subject is *pan/pani* (YOU):

Pan pamięta to słowo.	YOU REMEMBER THE WORD.
Pamięta pan to słowo?	DO YOU REMEMBER THE WORD?

6. Information questions in English are a problem since in Polish information questions are formed by placing the information question-word at the beginning of the sentence, the elements in the sentences remain in the same order as followed in declarative sentences:

Co Janek będzie robił?	WHAT JOHN WILL DO? = What will John do?

Note that subject-verb inversion is optionally allowed in Polish in certain types of information questions:

Co będzie Janek robił?	WHAT WILL JOHN DO?

In general, all question formations in English are most likely to be a problem for the Polish-speaker learning English.

7. Negation in English is quite complicated when compared to Polish. Polish negates a sentence by placing the negative particle *nie* before the verb:

Oni nie przyszli.	THEY DID NOT RUN.
On nie będzie widział.	HE WILL NOT SEE.
On nie wiedział.	HE DID NOT KNOW.

In English, the negative particle NOT (N'T) sometimes occurs before the verb (with DO support), sometimes after the verb (in the case of auxiliaries and modals). Negation in English will require considerable attention.

8. Polish indicates definiteness by placing the definite noun at the beginning

of the sentence; indefiniteness is marked by placing the indefinite noun at the end of the sentence. Polish does not have anything corresponding directly to the THE/A(N) distinction English makes. Hence, article usage will represent one of the most difficult areas of English grammar for the Polish-speaker learning English.

9. Adjectives precede the noun in Polish (a parallel to English usage); however there are some significant differences between English and Polish as to placement of adjectives: if the adjective refers to an intrinsic property of the noun, then the adjective is placed after the noun:

stary niedzwiedz	OLD BEAR	
niedzwiedz brunatny	BROWN BEAR	("Brown" is an intrinsic property, hence the adjective is placed after the noun.)
energia słoneczna	SOLAR ENERGY	
robotnik przemysłowy	INDUSTRIAL WORKER	

10. The English present perfect has no direct equivalent in Polish. This implies that all present perfect constructions will be a problem for the Polish-speaker learning English:

On już oddawna mieszka w Warszawie.

HE LIVES FOR A LONG TIME ALREADY IN WARSAW = He has lived in Warsaw for a long time.

In general, Polish has a combination of present tense and adverb as an equivalent of the Englsih present perfect. Thus, you can expect the student who speaks Polish to substitute a present tense form for the present perfect in English.

11. Verbs in Polish occur in two basic shapes: imperfective (denoting an action which is in progress or habitual or frequent) and perfective (denoting an action already completed):

czytac	TO READ, TO BE READING
przeczytac	TO HAVE READ, TO FINISH READING
dac	TO GIVE
dawac	TO HAVE GIVEN
On dawał.	HE USED TO GIVE/HE GAVE/HE WAS GIVING
On dał.	HE HAS GIVEN/HE GAVE (ONCE)

Note that Polish marks a difference by the use of two (related) verbs; English makes the difference by the use of different tenses or even by using auxiliary verbs (such as used to, have, be, etc.). This is a major difference between Polish and English and will be a source of difficulty for the Polish-speaker learning English.

Farsi (Persian)

Farsi, an Indo-Iranian language spoken in Iran, is closely related to Dari (spoken in Afghanistan) and Tadjik (spoken in Afghanistan and the U.S.S.R.). These three languages are often referred to as "Persian." Farsi is distantly related to English since both English and Farsi belong to the Indo-European family of Languages. However, the historic relationship between Farsi and English is too distant to be of any practical use to the Farsi-speaker learning English.

ORTHOGRAPHY

Farsi is written in a modified version of the Arabic alphabet. The Farsi alphabet is written from right-to-left. The Farsi writing system does not represent all of the major sound classes. In paricular, many of the vowels in Farsi are often not represented by the writing system. As a consequence, the English-learner who is literate in Farsi will not be able to transfer much when learning to read English. Note that punctuation signs are not generally used in written Farsi. These will also constitute a major porblem in learning to both read and write English.

ENGLISH VOWELS

Farsi has eight major vowels. Since English has more vowel sounds than Farsi has, and in addition, English has some vowel sounds that Farsi lacks, it can be expected that the Farsi-speaker learning English will find certain English vowels particularly troublesome to master. Among these are:

1. English /i/ and /e/ (the vowels in bit and bet, respectively). Farsi has a vowel sound that is similar to both of these English vowels. Consequently, the Farsi-speaker will not distinguish between the vowels in bit and bet.
2. English /ə/ has no near equivalent in Farsi. Farsi has a vowel that is somewhat similar to English /æ/ (as in cat) and English /ə/ (as in cut). This means that vowel /ə/ will be confused with English /æ/ (at times), and that the vowel /ə/ will have to be taught as a special pronunciation problem.
3. English /a/ and /ə/ (as in cot and cut, respectively) will be a problem since Farsi lacks an equivalent to English /ə/.
4. English /ɔ/ (as in caught) has no equivalent in Farsi. The nearest vowel sounds in Farsi to English /ɔ/ are /a/ and /o/. Thus, the Farsi-speaker will find English /a/, /ɔ/ and /ow/ (as in cot, caught, coat, respectively) particularly difficult to master at first.

ENGLISH CONSONANTS

The Farsi-speaker will find most English consonants relatively easy to master since Farsi has many consonants similar to those found in English. However, there may be differences in distribution (where in the word the sound can occur) that will have to be paid attention to. The major difficulties appear to be the following:

1. Farsi /b/, /d/, and /g/ do not occur at the end of words. This means that English words ending in /b/, /d/, and /g/ (as in lab, lad, and lag) will be a problem since the Farsi-speaker will tend to substitute /p/, /t/ and /k/ for English /b/, /d/, and /g/ respectively: lab, lad, lag will be pronounced (and heard) as lap, lat, lack.

2. Farsi has a sound similar to English /zh/ (as in pleasure). However, Farsi /zh/ does not occur at the end of words. This means that English words such as rouge, garage, beige will most likely be pronounced with /sh/ instead of /zh/. This is a relatively minor problem.

3. Farsi /r/ is a trilled sound, similar to Spanish/rr/. English /r/ is pronounced differently, thus English /r/ is a pronunciation problem for the Farsi-speaker. But this is also a relatively minor problem.

4. Farsi /l/ is pronounced similarly to the English /l/ in late. English /l/ as in bill represents a sound that does not occur in Farsi. The Farsi-speaker will probably either not hear the English /l/ at the end of a word or interpret it as some sort of vowel-sound. Either way, English /l/ at the end of a word represents a particular problem for the Farsi-speaker learning English.

5. Farsi /l/ and /r/ are devoiced at the end of words. English /l/ and /r/ are fully voiced in such positions. English-speakers will not interpret a devoiced /l/ or /r/ as /l/ or /r/. Thus, the Farsi-speaker will have to learn to voice /l/ and /r/ at the end of words.

6. English /θ/ and /ð/ (as in thin and there, respectively) have no equivalents in Farsi. The Farsi-speaker will tend to substitute /t/ and /d/ for these English consonants. This represents a relatively major problem that will require extensive practice.

SYNTACTIC CONSIDERATIONS

1. The most frequent position for the verb in Farsi is at the end of the sentence. The favorite sentence type is subject-object-verb. This is in contrast to English subject-verb-object. Thus, one can expect errors of the following type:

   The man a letter wrote.
   The woman bread is baking.

2. Negation is marked by prefixing the negative particle *na* to the verb.

dîdam	I SAW
nadîdam	I DIDN'T SEE
mîâyam	I AM COMING
namîâyam	I AM NOT COMING

   We should note that English has a very complicated system for showing negation. Sometimes the negative particle occurs before the verb (but attached to the empty tense carrier DO) and sometimes after the verb (as with the verb BE). The Farsi system is far simpler, thus, one can expect a considerable amount of trouble in learning the English system of negation. An additional major difference between English and Farsi in respect to negation is that in Farsi the negative prefix is alwys stressed. In English, the negative particle is stressed only in contrastive situations. This also represents an additional learning problem for the Farsi-speaker learning English.

3. Possesion is marked in Farsi by suffixation:

   dust-emân FRIEND-OUR = our friend

   A further complication is that Farsi does not distinguish between grammatical gender so that HIS/HER/ITS are represented by the same suffix, *-esh*:

   dust-esh HIS FRIEND or HER FRIEND or ITS FRIEND

This means that (1) the position of the possessive pronoun will be a new thing to learn, and (2) gender distinctions in English will also be a particular problem. Seemingly simple expressions in English such as HIS BOOK vs. HER BOOK represent a major problem for the Farsi-speaker learning English.

4. Farsi distinguishes between human and non-human categories. That is, the Farsi pronoun û is equivalent to English HE and SHE; Farsi ân is roughly equivalent to English IT. As with the possessive pronouns, the subject pronouns in English will represent a complication as seen from the Farsi-speaker's point of view. As a result, confusion between HE and SHE can be expected by the ESL teacher.

5. Farsi nouns are not pluralized after a number. This implies that English expressions requiring plural marking will occur in the singular form after numbers:

TWO FRIEND (instead of two friends)
THREE HORSE (instead of three horses)

6. Farsi does not have a direct equivalent of the definite article in English, THE. Direct objects are marked with a special suffix to indicate definiteness (in such cases being equivalent to English THE):

man pûl gereftam
I MONEY GOT = I got money

man pûl-ra gereftam
I MONEY-THE GOT = I got the money

In the cases where the noun is in subject position, no marking occurs for definiteness. This means that the THE/A distinction in English will represent a particular problem for the Farsi-speaker learning English. However, in object position, there is an indication of indefiniteness. This suggests that the definite article THE should first be introduced in object position.

7. Unlike English, Farsi does not alter the sequence of elements in a sentence to indicate a question. Yes-no questions are formed by intonation (the voice rises to form a question). English has a very complex system of question-formation. This system will constitute a serious problem for the English-learner.

8. Wh-questions (information questions) are formed by placing the equivalent of the wh-word (equivalents of WHO, WHEN, WHERE, etc.) immediately befor the verb. The wh-word can also be placed at the beginning of the sentence (as in English), but this is relatively infrequent. Thus, wh-question formation in English is also a difficult area for learning.

9. Subject pronouns are optional in Farsi. In English subject pronouns are obligatory. Thus, one can expect the Farsi-speaker to produce sentences without subject pronouns. This represents a serious problem.

10. Plurality is signaled by suffixation. This is parallel to what happens in English. However, in Farsi the plural suffix is stressed (whereas in English it is never stressed):

zan WOMAN
zan-AN WOMEN (with the suffix receiving stress)

11. Farsi differs from English in one major area, namely, Farsi does not have constructions equivalent to English infinitives.

man mîtavânam ânjâ beravam
I CAN THAT I-GO = I can go

man mîkhâham ke û bênvîsad
I WANT THAT HE GOES = I want him to go

This represents a major difference between English and Farsi and will constitute one of the major learning problems for the Farsi-speaker learning English.

12. Farsi equivalents of English BE can occur as either a verb (in which case it is similar to English) or as a suffix attached to adjectives, etc. Thus, sentences such as HE IS HAPPY, HE IS HERE, etc. are problems since the equivalents in Farsi have suffixes instead of separate verbs.